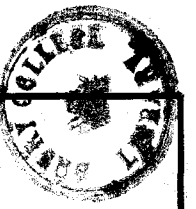

The Outlook

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, JUNE 17, 1905

President Roosevelt's Move for Peace

The eagerness of the whole world for peace before the shedding of more blood in the Far East has been shown during the past week by the enthusiastic approval with which the action of President Roosevelt, in suggesting a plan for negotiations, has been met in all parts of the world. It is not too much to say that the eyes of all nations have been on the President, and, perhaps for the first time in history, because a foremost ruler is playing the rôle of the peacemaker in a great crisis. Amid a flood of talk, largely consisting of surmises from the leading capitals of Europe, a few facts stand out clearly. On Thursday of last week the President addressed an identical note to Russia and Japan, in which, with entire frankness, directness, and transparent sincerity, he expressed his feeling that the time had come when, in the interest of all mankind, he must make the endeavor to see if it were not possible to end the terrible war now being waged in the East. The United States, he says, has inherited ties of friendship with both countries, and hopes for the prosperity and welfare of each, recognizing at the same time that the progress of the world is set back by the war. The President therefore urges the Russian and Japanese Governments, not only for their own sakes but in the interest of the whole civilized world, to open negotiations for peace with each other. He suggests that these negotiations be conducted directly and exclusively between the belligerents, by a meeting of Japanese and Russian delegates or plenipotentiaries to see if it is not possible to agree upon terms of peace, declaring that he does not feel that any intermediary should be called in with respect to the peace negotiations. The President expresses his willingness to do what he properly can if the two Powers concerned feel that his services will be of aid in arranging preliminaries as to the time and place of meeting, but if even these preliminaries can be arranged directly between the two Powers, or in any other way, the President will be glad, as his sole purpose is to bring about a meeting which the whole civilized world will pray will result in peace. Not only the purpose of this note but its form appears to have commanded the approval of diplomatists everywhere, as it has certainly expressed the profound feeling of all nations. The contents of this note were published on Friday, and on Saturday it was announced that the President's suggestion had been substantially accepted both at Tokyo and St. Petersburg. The willingness of the Japanese to treat for peace has been made clear for months past. They have unequivocally expressed their willingness to appoint plenipotentiaries as soon as Russia indicates her willingness to take the same action. The reports from St. Petersburg are not so definite, but they all point to a hesitating and reluctant acceptance of the President's note, and the probabilities are that during the week both countries will appoint delegates to discuss the preliminaries of peace, if not plenipotentiaries with power to arrange terms.

❀

The Russian Ships Interned

"Time cannot be given for the repair of the injuries received in battle. Therefore the vessels cannot be repaired unless interned until the end of hostilities." Such is the order cabled by Secretary Taft to Governor Wright at Manila respecting the Russian ships which had taken refuge there after the naval battle in the Sea of Japan. The action has been acquiesced in by the Russian Government, and apparently welcomed by the Russian sailors on the ships, which will be interned at Manila until the end of the war. This decision

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is said by the daily press to be the enunciation of a new principle in international law. This is probably correct; for though war vessels injured by accident or by storm have a right to make such repairs as will enable them to reach the nearest home port, the question whether they have the same right in the case of injuries inflicted in battle has not, so far as we know, been raised before. If the President's decision should be accepted by the Great Powers, as seems probable, it will constitute an important addition to international law. The student of current events should bear constantly in mind that international law is radically different from national law. The latter is authoritative and can be enforced. It expresses the will of the nation, to which the citizen owes allegiance, and this equally whether the law is an enactment by the legislature or an interpretation by the courts. When the Supreme Court of the United States decides that an American citizen living in Manila is not entitled to jury trial, the citizen goes to jail and serves out his sentence. There is no such authority in international law. There is no international legislature to enact law, and though the Hague Tribunal has now a *quasi* international authority to interpret international law, there is no power to enforce its decrees. International law is simply international custom. The President's order that ships injured in battle shall not be allowed to repair in an American port during the continuance of the war is an authoritative declaration of what will be the custom of America. Russia had no option but to acquiesce, but she might have done so under protest. Her acquiescence without protest gives to the principle her *quasi* indorsement. And as the whole tendency of modern times is for neutral Powers to do what in them lies to discourage war and to limit its operations, we may probably assume that this decision will be accepted by the other Powers and will take its place among the accepted principles of international law. It has been defended on the ground that to allow a ship injured in battle to repair in a neutral port would be equivalent to making the neutral port a base of supplies. But whether this decision is a necessary corollary from past international practice it is not important to determine. It is better to look forward than backward for the defense of this decision, and to recognize frankly that it is an advance movement in the direction of making war more difficult and peace more easy, a movement not inconsistent with past traditions and yet distinctly an advance upon them.

❀

The Situation in Morocco

Whether or not the Emperor of Germany intended to force the retirement of M. Delcassé, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, by his policy in Morocco, that has been the result of his speech at Tangiers and the train of events which that speech set in motion. It may be well to put behind so important an event as the retirement of M. Delcassé a bit of historical background. Readers of The Outlook will remember that, by an agreement made between France and England, the latter country recognized a kind of overlordship of France in Morocco—some such relation to the country as that which England sustains to Egypt. Algeria, which adjoins Morocco on the east, is a French province. French interests, therefore, are in a certain way paramount in Morocco, and it was agreed for that reason that France should undertake the difficult task of putting the Sultan's dominion in order and introducing certain very much needed reforms among his turbulent and fanatical subjects. It was also agreed, if reports are to be trusted, that, in order to avoid arousing international jealousies, that France should maintain the open door in Morocco and guarantee the commercial equality of all the treaty nations for a period of thirty years. The apparent effect of this arrangement would have been to maintain the Sultan as the nominal ruler of Morocco for at least thirty years. Meanwhile all internal affairs would be in the hands of the French, who would reorganize the government, develop the industries, and manage the foreign affairs of the country. This seemed like a step in the direction of the old French dream of building up a new France

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along the southern shores of the Mediterranean. Italy and Spain subsequently recognized this arrangement between England and France, but Germany was not taken into account. Her commercial interests were not great and the Emperor was not consulted, though M. Delcassé stated recently in the Chamber of Deputies that, after the agreement had been signed, its terms were at once communicated to the Emperor of Germany frankly and in an entirely friendly spirit.

❀

The Resignation of M. Delcassé

It was at this stage of affairs that the Emperor visited Tangiers for a brief half-hour, and, in a speech evidently carefully prepared for the occasion, declared that he intended to treat the Sultan as an independent sovereign, and to preserve the freedom of German trade in Morocco. This statement was interpreted as formal notice that Germany would not recognize the overlordship of France in Morocco, and it made it necessary for France to either leave the matter in abeyance or come into sharp collision with Germany. The French wished to pursue neither course. Trouble with Germany at this moment, when their ally, Russia, is crippled, was the last thing for which French statesmen wished. M. Delcassé was taken to task in the Chamber of Deputies, but the seriousness of the situation seemed to calm men of all parties, and for the time being criticism of his course was silenced. It now appears that he practically stood alone in the Cabinet. The Ministers held their associate in the highest personal regard, as do all Frenchmen familiar with his services during the past seven and a half years; but there has been a growing division of opinion between the Minister of Foreign Affairs and the other Ministers over the situation in Morocco. The Sultan's rejection of the proposed French reforms, and his declaration in favor of the German Emperor's proposal to settle the affairs of that country by a conference of the Powers, brought matters to a crisis. The French mission to Fez has failed. France is in an embarrassing situation, and it is quite evident that the other Ministers are eager to escape from that situation as rapidly as is consistent with dignity. The retiring Minister has made himself one of the foremost foreign diplomats of his time. He has stayed in office an almost unprecedented length of time for a French Minister, and has survived several Cabinet changes, because his presence was indispensable to the success of incoming Ministries. In all international relations he has pursued a policy of reticence, moderation, and peace. More than once, as in the Fashoda affair, when there was danger of serious disturbance because of peculiarly irritating circumstances, M. Delcassé has shown masterly tact in persuading the opponents of France and in allaying the sensitive feelings of his own country. It is too early to pass on the wisdom or the unwisdom of his course in Morocco, but his retirement seems like a misfortune. He is to be succeeded by M. Rouvier, the Prime Minister, who is to undertake also the Foreign Office, and who is fortunately a man of force, of a practical turn of mind, and one of the diminishing group of Moderate Liberalists in the present Ministry.

❀

The Spanish King in England

The visit of King Alfonso XIII. of Spain to England is a dramatic announcement, as it were, of Spain's rehabilitation. Although gossips have been busy with speculation concerning an alliance between the royal houses of Spain and England, and with conjectures as to political relationship between these two Governments that may be brought about by the visit, there is apparently little foundation for the belief that the presence of the Spanish King in England has any matrimonial or any specific political significance. For this visit there is sufficient justification in the fact that it will remind the world of the pride and patriotism of the Spanish people. Born a king and educated for his office as few rulers have been, Alfonso XIII. has many of those qualities which are traditionally associated with the kingly character. His self-possession was displayed when in Paris, on the first of June, he nar-

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rowly escaped the bomb of a would-be assassin. His dignity and instinct for command have brought him respect; his impulsiveness and courage have inspired loyalty. These qualities have been evident throughout his journey. On his arrival in England last week he was greeted with genuine enthusiasm by the people, and, of course, with royal ceremony by King Edward. Following the custom of sovereigns, each King appeared in a uniform distinctive of the other's country—King Edward wearing that of a Spanish Admiral, and King Alfonso that of a General in the British army. Americans have reason for especial interest in this visit because in a certain way it marks the recovery of national self-confidence after the war between Spain and the United States. The loss of her colonies which Spain sustained in that war in truth was not a loss but a gain to the Spanish nation. This sign of that fact will bring nothing but gratification to the American people. Whatever enmity towards the Spaniards existed as a product of a struggle for supremacy between two races in the Western Hemisphere was wiped out in 1898. It is therefore but natural that among the cheering crowds in London which greeted King Alfonso should be not a few Americans. One of the first acts of the new American Ambassador to the Court of St. James's, the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, who participated in the Peace of Paris, was to attend the festivities of welcome, and to congratulate the Spanish King on the prosperity of his kingdom. A journey of this sort, which thus stimulates good will, needs no other object or justification.

❀

The Marriage of the German Crown Prince

The German people were naturally interested last week in the wedding of Crown Prince Frederick William, who some day may be their Emperor. What is of interest to the whole German people is not a matter of indifference to the people of a friendly nation. The Crown Prince has married the Duchess Cecilia of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. In this case no international relations are affected. The alliance involves the German Federation alone. Whatever discussion it has aroused concerns other nations as little and as much as a family discussion concerns the neighbors. The wedding ceremony was elaborate and brilliant. The colors of military uniforms and the festive gowns of the ladies made the scene one of gayety. Though the wedding service itself within the Palace Chapel was the simple one of the Lutheran Church, the ceremonies included a procession, a reception in the White Hall, a wedding supper, and a quaint torchlight dance—a tradition of the house of Hohenzollern. On the destiny of these two young people depends much of the prosperity of the German Empire. The people of a republic, though counting themselves happy in being independent of the fortunes of any family, can join with other peoples in wishing prosperity to the Crown Prince and Princess on whose prosperity depend so great issues.

❀

Mr. Choate Home Again

Mr. Joseph H. Choate has returned home after six years of the highest type of service to his country as Ambassador at the Court of St. James's. During those years his great work was in strengthening the bonds of friendship, good will, and harmony between Great Britain and America. The extraordinary series of farewell dinners, receptions, addresses, and kindred honors tendered him by the British people, which reached its climax in his election as a "bencher" of the Middle Temple, a unique distinction for an American, bore testimony to the place which his charm of personality, his high conception of his office, and the worthy manner in which he discharged its functions have won for him in their hearts. His welcome home is no less spontaneous and hearty. A noteworthy dinner, the first of a number to be given in his honor by various associations, was that of the Pilgrims of the United States at the Waldorf-Astoria on Friday evening of last week. In the course of a charming speech in reply to Bishop Potter's welcome, Mr. Choate said:

There is but one drawback to the Embassy's complete success and perfect pres-

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tige, and that is the want of a permanent home, the property of its own Government, where the residence of the Ambassador shall be fixed and all the business of the Embassy conducted. While all of the other Great Powers which maintain embassies in London have such permanent homes, each its own property, the United States and Turkey alone lead a floating and nomadic existence. The present arrangement, by which our country, almost alone among the nations represented at London by embassies, goes without a home of its own, is undemocratic, unrepublican, and unbecoming to the dignity of a great Nation. It is unfair to the President, because it limits his choice every time. He ought to be able to lay his hand upon the shoulder of whomever he considers the very best man among our eighty millions to represent the Nation in each of the capitals of Europe, whether he has a dollar of his own or not. What we ought to have is a permanent Embassy, spacious in area and simple in character, suitable for the representative of a Republic, properly equipped and adequate for the purpose, in which each successive Ambassador would reside as a matter of course, the Nation alone being responsible for its dignity and fitness; and I hope that all of you who have any political influence will urge this modest reform.

The policy which Mr. Choate denounces has been adhered to because it was supposed to be democratic, and so it doubtless was in the early days of our Republic. But under the greatly changed conditions of later years it has reacted in precisely the opposite direction. A policy which makes it impossible for any but a rich man to represent our country in a foreign capital is a travesty on democracy; a policy which requires a diplomatic representative to spend large sums from his own pocket in order worthily to represent his country and uphold its dignity among other nations is a niggardly one. It ought to be promptly superseded by the policy which Mr. Choate advocates.

❀

Differences with Canada

A grain of sand is sufficient to make serious and even dangerous friction if it is lodged in the place appropriate for such a result. Very insignificant causes have led to what is not insignificant friction between the United States and Canada on the border, which it ought to be, and we trust will be, the object not only of the statesmen but also of the common people of both countries to remove. One of these differences, and perhaps the one most easily capable of prompt and satisfactory settlement, is the announced intention of the Dominion Government to lay before the authorities at Washington a protest against the head tax of $2 said to have been levied upon Canadians at the Niagara frontier in alleged defiance of the American statute which exempts Canadians. Such a matter can, of course, be promptly arranged where satisfactory proofs are offered of Canadian citizenship, and it may be possible that arrangements can be made that may not be unnecessarily annoying to our northern neighbors in the execution of the law. The simplest method would seem to be some adaptation of the passport system, so that every Canadian possessing a passport would pass the border as a matter of course, without further inquiry. As regards certain other matters, such as the lumbermen's dispute on the St. John River, and that in relation to the deportation of Pere Marquette railroad officials at St. Thomas, Ontario, there are prospects that a better understanding may be arrived at, and that a satisfactory agreement in both cases may be reached as the result of further examination and discussion of the facts and the law in the cases. As to the St. John River dispute, where American and Canadian lumbermen came almost into armed contact a short time ago, the difficulty has been settled temporarily, to such an extent at least as to make no further appeal to dynamite necessary. The Van Buren Lumber Company's boom in the St. John River near St. Leonard's, which caused the trouble, has been taken up and swung near the Canadian shore, thus freeing the channel for navigation. Secretary Moody has decided that the St. John River case does not come within the scope of the River and Harbor Act of 1902 creating the International Waterway Commission, as the only waters named in that Act for investigation are those whose natural outlet is by the St. Lawrence River to the Atlantic Ocean. The trouble may eventually be settled either by an enlargement of the powers of the Commission or by the

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Maine Legislature and the New Brunswick authorities. As to the deportation of Pere Marquette railroad officials as coming within Canada's alien law, that, of course, is a matter for the Canadian courts to determine; and as Canada's law on the subject of aliens is similar to that of the United States, a like interpretation, when finally arrived at, probably will prevail in the United States. As Grand Trunk officials, however, have been permitted to perform work at Portland, Maine, without deportation under the American law, it would seem that Canada would feel bound to reciprocate, especially as the agitation against the American officials was due solely to labor influences, and is disapproved of at St. Thomas, the place most concerned.

❀

The Equitable: A Result Reached

The policy-holders in the New York Equitable Life Assurance Society will be gratified to learn that they have won a substantial victory, and that hereafter they are to have a real and effective representation in the affairs of a corporation in which they have so large an interest and over which they have had in the past no control. It has been charged that the object of the Frick Committee was to secure a control of the affairs of the company, and the handling of its surplus, by the Harriman interests. We see no reason to believe that charge to be true. If it were true, that object was defeated. For the rejection of that report by the Board of Directors was followed by the resignation of most of the members of the Committee, leaving the Board apparently in the control of Mr. Hyde and his personal friends. But this control was more apparent than real. It was impossible that either of the two factions who have been fighting to secure the administration of the Society, both of whom were condemned by the findings of the Frick report, could withstand the public opinion which that report created. If, as all the evidence available to the public seems to show, the object of that report was to make a thorough disclosure of the unjustifiable methods which had been pursued by the administration of the Equitable, and to lay the foundation for its radical reorganization on new lines and in new hands, the Committee cannot but be gratified at their success. That the rejection of that report was followed by some further maneuvering for control is indicated, and, as between Mr. Hyde and Mr. Alexander, we judge that the victory remains with Mr. Hyde—that is, that his friends have had the determining voice in the reorganization. What is, however, important to the policy-holders and to the public at large is the fact that the reorganization is complete; that it takes all control, if not all power, out of the hands of both Mr. Hyde and Mr. Alexander; that it probably involves the withdrawal of them both from office; and that the policy-holders will have a substantial representation in the future direction of the Society's affairs.

❀

The Equitable: The Result Explained

The action which has been taken and which we have thus interpreted above is as follows: Mr. Paul Morton, the retiring Secretary of the Navy, and formerly prominent in railroad circles as Vice-President of the Santa Fé Railroad, has been elected Chairman of the Board of Directors, with plenary power over all the officers and affairs of the Society. Two members of the Board advocated delay until the report of the State Superintendent of Insurance should be received, but, being overruled, acquiesced and made Mr. Morton's election unanimous. Mr. Morton accepted the election in the following brief and significant speech, which may be regarded as the platform of the new administration:

> There is only one condition on which I can undertake this vast work. I must have a free hand and a clear field. I understand the magnitude of the task I shall undertake, and the grave responsibility which I must assume. I shall need the help of every man on this Board. A complete reorganization undoubtedly will be necessary. In that I shall guard, first and always, the interests of the policy-holders. Next will come the members of this Board who do so much for the Society. After that will come the interests of every officer and every employee of the Equitable. The task will be a great one; the work almost too much for one man. I

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must not be handicapped in any way. I stipulate now that I must have absolutely a free hand.

In order to give him this free hand he called for the resignations of both Mr. Alexander and Mr. Hyde, as President and Vice-President respectively, and also of the other vice-presidents, to be accepted or declined as his further acquaintance with the affairs of the Society showed would be for the best; and these resignations were accordingly placed in his hands. Mr. Hyde's resignation was accompanied with a very manly letter, and, as we have published the Frick Committee's report criticising Mr. Hyde's course, we give here his affirmation of his innocence:

> In this connection you will, perhaps, pardon me for repeating what I have so often said to you, that throughout my career with the Society its interest has always been uppermost, and I have never consciously done or omitted anything which would be to its injury or disadvantage.
>
> I hope I may be pardoned the statement that the prosperity of the Society of late years is at this time my greatest source of pride and consolation. I am quite content to submit my acts in connection with the management of the Society to the verdict of all fair-minded men, when the unreasoning public clamor induced by the false and sensational attacks upon me shall have passed.

This affirmation does not change our conviction that Mr. Hyde's financial transactions, as recounted by himself, though they may have been without any consciousness of wrong-doing, cannot be justified as being in accordance with sound business principles. He has, however, done much to rectify his previous errrors by selling enough of his stock to a syndicate of policy-holders to give the policy-holders control of the company. His announcement of this important transaction we give in his own words:

> The purchasers of the stock have expressed their intention to divest themselves of all voting power and immediately put control of the company in the hands of policy-holders, notwithstanding the pending litigation, by conveying the stock to a board of trustees of such character as to command universal confidence, and not connected with any financial institution, and giving them power to vote it for the election of directors, as to twenty-eight of the fifty-two directors, as instructed by the policy-holders, and, as to the remaining twenty-four directors, according to the uncontrolled judgment of the trustees, thus following the plan of mutualization already approved by the Insurance Department, and eliminating the one-man power to which so much objection has been made. Provision is intended also to be made for an amendment of the charter so as to perpetuate this control of the policy-holders.

Mr. Grover Cleveland, Justice M. J. O'Brien, of the New York Supreme Court, and Mr. George Westinghouse have been asked to serve as trustees, and have accepted. The policy-holders could ask no better assurance that their interests in the future will be properly safeguarded. We see no reason why this action should not remove from all policy-holders whatever anxiety they may have been occasioned, and rehabilitate the Equitable in the confidence of the public. But while a satisfactory reorganization of the Equitable Society has thus been accomplished, the movement for insurance reform has not yet completed its work. Insurance companies are in reality great savings corporations. The Legislature ought to limit their dealings in stocks and bonds as strictly as it has limited similar buying and selling of investment securities by savings banks. Is there any good reason why insurance companies should not be brought under the savings bank law in this respect?

❀

Reform Continues in Philadelphia

Mayor Weaver and his new associates continue to give Philadelphia a taste and a desire for clean, business-like administration of municipal affairs. While the removals during the past ten days have not been so numerous nor so conspicuous, they are all in the direction of efficiency and clean politics. Colonel Potter, the Director of Public Safety, has struck two body-blows at the Durham-Penrose-McNichol combination. In the first place, office-holders have been ordered out of the political clubs, membership in which has heretofore been compulsory on the part of all holding or desiring places in the public service. This order will not only cripple these clubs, which have been an important part of the "machine," but it will remove an important source of revenue, as they have been the means whereby the office-

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holders have been assessed for political purposes. The second order strikes at the padded assessors' list evil. It requires the police to report on all names assessed from their residences, and then to go out of the boarding-house business, so that they will no longer have an excuse for registering a considerable list of names from their houses. A minor reform has been the one forbidding to agents of unscrupulous lawyers access to the police stations. There have been a number of removals of patrolmen, one of whom (the last appointee of former Director Smyth) had a long criminal record. The "organization" is keeping very quiet, hoping that Mayor Weaver will tire in his good work and that the public will lose interest. The Mayor shows no signs of fatigue, however, and with each step confirms and strengthens what he has already done. The public interest, meantime, grows in strength and solidity (although less explosive and open in its manifestation) by what it has been given. There does not seem to be any substantial abatement in public sentiment. The influence of the Philadelphia revolution is spreading to the State. Penrose, the State leader, has consented to the appointment to the vacant Supreme Court Justiceship of Judge John Stewart, an old-time anti-Quay leader, who in 1882 ran as an Independent Republican candidate for Governor and made Robert E. Pattison's election possible. In Philadelphia the "organization" leaders are laying plans to remodel their local ticket by removing the objectionable candidates and substituting clean and unobjectionable ones. This step is to be taken to offset, if possible, the independent fight at the polls.

❀

For Educational Unity

The proposed alliance between Harvard University and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology was advanced another stage last week. The corporation of the Institute voted to accept the terms of agreement which had been drawn up by a committee representing both the Institute and the University. This action of the Institute Corporation has undoubtedly occasioned some surprise and disappointment, for the alumni of the Institute have expressed themselves by a large majority as opposed to any alliance with Harvard. The objections to the plan have been very emphatically stated by both Technology and Harvard alumni. These objections are pretty well represented in two letters which are before us, one from a graduate of the Lawrence Scientific School of Harvard, the other from a representative alumnus of the Institute of Technology. The Harvard alumnus does not think that Harvard should shift to other shoulders the responsibility for administering the great McKay bequest for scientific education, objects naturally to the extinction of the Lawrence Scientific School, sees nothing but loss to Harvard in the arrangement by which Harvard is represented on the joint committee by only three, and those three selected by the Institute. He firmly believes that Harvard is losing all to the Institute's gain. The Institute alumnus, on the other hand, considers the proposed alliance unbusinesslike, believes that the Institute by moving to Cambridge will exchange a good situation for a poor one, and by admitting a change in its government will lose the prestige which it now has; he is clear that no financial benefit will accrue to the Institute, he fears the substitution of the "Harvard spirit" for the "Institute spirit," and he opposes the creation of a scientific school so large and so involved with the University that educational competition will cease, the choice of educational institutions for any student will be restricted, the individual will be lost, and the traditions of a non-classical university will be abandoned. Neither of these sees any chance of avoiding by the alliance duplication of appliance and administration. It is amusing to note that each is quite sure that his own Alma Mater is being robbed for the benefit of the sister institution. Perhaps they are both right. The public does not care very much whether the plan will be of advantage either to Harvard or to the Institute of Technology, and is quite unconcerned about the prestige of either of them. But the public is really interested in all that

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has to do with the advancement of education in this country, and is therefore concerned that the final decision in this discussion should make for educational economy and efficiency. Whether, in view of the terms of the McKay bequest, the project can be legally carried out is a question for the courts to decide. If it proves to be not a contravention of the conditions of the gift, and is finally adopted, it will, we believe, do an immense service in bringing order and coherence into higher education in America.

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New Departments at Fisk University

Fisk University at Nashville, Tennessee, has long been recognized as one of the foremost institutions in the South in training negro teachers, physicians, and ministers. The need of practical education for the negro, however, has been felt so deeply even by those who believe in opening all fields of knowledge to him that an effort is now being made to enlarge the curriculum at Fisk University by the addition of a department for the training of leaders in industrial education. The trustees of the Slater Fund have offered an annual gift of $5,000 for five years to Fisk for the maintenance of a school of applied science, providing a suitable building is furnished by the University. In order to meet the condition, the friends of the institution are now trying to raise $25,000 for such a building and $5,000 for its equipment. It is proposed to supply facilities of the most practical sort, dealing with the chemistry of paints, varnishes, dyeing, and soils; the planting and care of trees, shrubs, and flowers; irrigation and drainage, and the building of roads; instruction in the principles of simple engines, and instruction in those greatly needed subjects, hygiene and sanitation. Mechanical drawing, manual training, and domestic science in the lower grades, which have not been taught of late years at Fisk for lack of means, will be re-established. It is gratifying to note the interest taken in this proposed enlargement of the work of the University by the press and the people of Nashville. Prominent members of the Chamber of Commerce and of commercial associations have approved of the plan, and steps are to be taken to cooperate with the University in the endeavor to raise the funds. It will be remembered that Mr. Carnegie recently offered the University $25,000 for a library building.

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Orphans and Automobiles

Automobiles appeared in a new rôle in New York last week. A hundred machines of all sizes and kinds, from red "devil wagons" and glass-inclosed touring cars to the lightest and latest-built runabout, preceded by a squad of mounted police at a gallop, and speeding from New York to Coney Island with never an arrest or an accident or an attempt at racing, is a sight not often seen. And the ride was one the riders did not often enjoy, since the automobiles were filled with orphans from a dozen institutions of New York City. The New York Motor Club had decreed an Orphan Automobile Day, the owners had loaned the machines, the guardians of the helpless had selected from their wards those whose good behavior entitled them to the holiday, and, though the skies were gray and cloudy, it was a happy party that set out from Columbus Circle with shrill yells of "Get a horse!" One institution could not send its quota—measles had broken out within its doors. The tears of those orphans were dried, however, by the prompt kindness of the Club, which sent immediate promise that as soon as quarantine was removed the shut-ins should have their turn. The Mayor reviewed the cavalcade as it passed the City Hall, smiling and bowing from the steps in response to the cheering and waving of the small citizens. A change of escort at the bridge, a bit of tinkering here and there to engine or tire, and the party were soon at Coney Island, where a bountiful repast had been provided for them on the pier. "My," exclaimed one urchin, his cheeks red and his eyes bright with the excitement of the ride, or the "fly," over the miles of country, "my, ain't they good to us!" This voiced the sentiment of all. The trained animals and the midgets of Brighton were called on for the entertainment of the children, and then,

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tired but happy, they were whirled safe home again. Into monotonous institutional lives had been brought new scenes, new ideas, new experiences which the memory would long hold. The circus managers for years have provided the orphan asylums with the annual treat of an afternoon's performance, and this is a new example of the activity of the spirit of sharing. It recalls the formation this year in New York of the Crippled Children's Driving Fund. This began with the act of a rich woman who used regularly to put her carriage at the disposal of convalescents and cripples to take them for long drives through parks and suburbs. Her friends became interested, and now an officered organization is carrying on this health and pleasure giving among a large clientele.

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A Significant Art Event

The dedication of the Albright Art Gallery at Buffalo, New York, is not only the most interesting recent event in the art world, but a significant indication of the rapid cultivation of the art spirit in this country, and of the rapid extension of opportunities of art study. Mr. J. J. Albright, the donor, is a man of cultivated tastes, who has for years past fostered, both publicly and privately, the art interests of Buffalo. The new building which he has erected and presented to the Buffalo Fine Arts Academy is a classic structure of the Ionic order, simple almost to severity in general design, but conveying a notable impression of dignity and stateliness. The architects have shown the instinct which guides French architects in dealing with the building as part of a landscape. They have admirably fitted the gallery into a background of soft turf, abundant shrubbery, and clusters of trees, so as to produce the best effect, and to give not only a human interest to a charming landscape, to which both the blue of the sky and the green of the lake contribute, but to make the gallery a focal point of the entire scene. The architects have succeeded, therefore, in dealing with all the conditions so as to give a building of very simple lines softness and elegance. The dedication exercises brought together a great audience, and consisted of singing by a combined chorus under the leadership of Professor Horatio Parker, of Yale University; a very interesting address on "Beauty and Democracy" by President Eliot, of Harvard; and a striking poem by Mr. Richard Watson Gilder. Dr. Eliot emphasized the fact that—

> The main object in every school should be, not to provide the children with means of earning a livelihood, but to show them how to live a happy and worthy life, inspired by ideals which exalt and dignify both labor and pleasure. To see beauty and to love it is to possess large securities for such a life. It is monstrous that the common school should give much time to compound numbers, bank discount, and stenography, and little time to drawing. It is monstrous that the school which prepares for college should give four or five hours a week for two years to Greek, and no time at all to drawing. For the implanting and developing of the sense of beauty in the minds of urban populations a large new provision has been made by many American cities during the last twenty years, and this movement is still gathering force. It will result in great gains for public happiness. The provision of public museums, like this beautiful structure whose opening we commemorate to-day, is another means of educating the popular sense of beauty. For training the eye to the appreciation of beautiful compositions in color good paintings are necessary. Unfortunately, our barbarous legislation, taxing imported works of art, piles on the natural difficulties of our situation a serious artificial obstruction. In diffusing among the American population knowledge and appreciation of the fine arts, we shall also diffuse the artistic sentiment about labor. Toward that idealization of daily life the love of the beautiful leads us, and the road which connects the love of the beautiful with the love of the good is short and smooth.

The opening of the Art Gallery has been made the occasion for an exhibition of pictures of very unusual interest, collectors from all parts of the country having loaned their treasures. Franz Hals, Velasquez, Sir Joshua Reynolds, and Rembrandt among the earlier, and Manet, Monet, Courbet, Puvis de Chavannes, Millet, Rousseau, Whistler, and others among the later painters contribute to the interest and completeness of a collection of exceptional value. American art is represented by Sargent, Thayer, Horatio Walker, Chase, Twachtman, Abbey, Miss Beaux, Homer Martin,

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George Fuller, and other well-known painters. Mr. Albright has agreed to contribute the sum of $10,000 a year for some time to come, to be used for the purchase of works of art, and $15,000 a year has been secured from other sources for the same purpose.

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Overtones in the Industrial Note

In attending an orchestral concert one does not naturally view the performers on the stage in the light of laboring men, as if they were mechanics constructing a musical edifice. Evidently, however, the members of the Musical Protective Union in New York City desire thus to be considered. At least so it seems from the action recently taken by this tonal trade organization. Mr. Walter Damrosch has been giving a series of concerts in a roof garden in New York. To perform at these concerts he employed several soloists. These gentlemen, all of them French, had but recently arrived in America, and they had applied to Mr. Damrosch for opportunities to perform; but evidently to the minds of members of the Musical Protective Union these Frenchmen are representatives of the pauper labor of Europe. Is not a flutist a man who plays on the flute, and are there not many people here in America who play on the flute? Is not the English horn a tool with which many workmen in America are familiar? Are there not American laborers who can wield the trumpet, clarinet, and bassoon? Why accept intruders when there are others who have been for at least six months Americans and who have families to support? All of the members of the union have been in America more than six months! This seems to be the only argument which could justify the action of the Musical Protective Union in requiring of Mr. Damrosch a fine of a thousand dollars as the penalty for employing Frenchmen. Heberlein, thanks to Mr. Schauffler, tells us on another page what he experienced in a "union rehearsal;" but Heberlein does not understand how heinous it is to resolve a chord of the seventh after hours; he knows no better, he is only an artist. A recent writer has implied if not declared that the performer has a higher place in the musical art than even the composer. However this may be, it is evident that he has a higher place in the musical trade. He need no longer, apparently, be worried by the doubt whether he has temperament, the power of musical understanding, insight into the composer's intention, ability to release the emotion imprisoned in a printed page and transfer it to his hearers; all that he needs now is to be a member of the Musical Protective Union. He need not worry as long as he has the certificate of this organization that he is an accomplished—artisan.

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Creed Revision in the Anglican Church

A year ago the casting vote of the Archbishop of Canterbury secured the appointment of a committee to report upon the proposed revision of the Athanasian Creed. Their report at the recent meeting of the Canterbury Convocation affirms that the minatory clauses of the Creed "convey a more unqualified statement than Scripture warrants, and one which is not consonant with the language of the greatest teachers of the Church." This was adopted, but a proposal to give effect to it by omitting from the Creed, when publicly recited, those portions which form no part of the confession of faith was rejected. To correct the inconsistency thus resulting Bishop Gore moved a resolution to the effect that it is desirable that bishops be authorized to dispense from reciting the Creed such clergymen as for sufficient reason desire it. This was carried after long debate, but the desirable authority has yet to be conferred. The discussion closed with a decision to defer final judgment till after the Lambeth Conference in 1908, in order to obtain the general opinion of the pan-Anglican communion.

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Church and Labor

A letter from the Rev. Charles Stelzle shows that the Presbyterian General Assembly did more than to indorse his work in bringing ministers and labor unions together, which has already taken effect in about

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fifty cities. It adopted a resolution establishing a " Department of Church and Labor " in the Board of Home Missions, and made Mr. Stelzle its Superintendent. His office at Chicago is designed to serve as a clearing house through which Presbyterial sub-committees to be appointed throughout the Church can come into practical methods of co-operation in the general plan of securing fraternal relations between the churches and organizations of workingmen, based upon a good understanding of each by each. By this official action the Presbyterian Church comes to an advanced line of approach to the unsolved problems of human brotherhood. Mr. Stelzle adds that " organizations have been perfected which will in time result in better physical conditions for workingmen and a truer conception of the duty of the Church in this respect."

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The Peacemaker

The historic event of the past week is the successful mediation of this country and the hope it affords of peace between Russia and Japan. Mr. Roosevelt's remarkable letter, of which we give an account in another column, furnishes a striking illustration of that combination of decision and tact which constitutes the essence of true diplomacy. There were very serious obstacles to the initiation of peace negotiations: Russia's pride forbade her to sue for peace; Japan's pride forbade her to offer peace if it was not asked for; and the pride of both nations and the disastrous effects upon Japanese interests of intervention at the close of the Japanese-Chinese War made it difficult for any nation to offer mediation. Mr. Roosevelt overcame these difficulties by a very simple method, as simple as that of Columbus's famous egg. He proposed to both countries that they contemporaneously appoint representatives to consider whether peace might not be arranged without either nation first proposing terms of peace, and that such representatives meet together without the intervention or co-operation of any third Power. Pride was satisfied and gave its consent.

But certain facts lying back of this letter made the letter possible. The Christian missionaries from America, both in China and Japan, have generally treated the religions of those countries with respect; and their educational and medical work has won for America respect and often affection. Bitter as has been the anti-Chinese prejudice in this country, and brutal as have been its manifestations, the American Government has treated both China and Japan with respect, and has sought no control over them, and no " sphere of influence " within their territories. American feeling during the war has been strongly and sometimes even vociferously pro-Japanese; but the American Government has maintained so absolutely its neutrality that it has fallen under no suspicion of official partiality from either country, and this cannot be said of any of the great European Powers. Finally, our interests in the Far East, our possession of the Philippines, our defeat of Spain, in a word, our entrance into world politics, have made it possible, as it otherwise would not have been, for the President of the United States to seize the psychological moment and speak with effectiveness because he spoke for a country which is no longer isolated from the rest of the world. So true is it that what men have called the policy of imperialism, sustained as it is by an adequate naval force, if rightly directed, can be made, as in this case it has been made, efficacious for the world's peace. Peace is not, indeed, yet assured. But if the anticipated armistice is arranged, and negotiations for peace are once entered upon, it is hardly possible that they will be followed by further fighting.

The Outlook cannot better express its appreciation of the service which Mr. Roosevelt has rendered to the world by his international policy than by quoting the words of Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, former President of the Parliamentary group in the French Chamber of Deputies favoring international arbitration: " President Roosevelt has already given four striking lessons to Europe—first, in having brought before the Arbitration Tribunal at The Hague the question between Mexico and the United States over the Pious Fund claims, while

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Europe was scoffing at the peace court which it had created; second, in obliging Europe to settle pacifically the Venezuelan affair; third, in proposing a second Peace Conference at The Hague to complete the work of the first; and, fourth, in now intervening to put to an end the hecatombs in the Far East."

May America always use her power, as she has in this instance, in favor of peace with honor.

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Municipal Ownership

A contributor reports on another page the results of municipal ownership of street railways in Glasgow. We believe that his statement of facts can be absolutely trusted; and they seem to demonstrate that, given the right conditions, municipal ownership and operation of street railways may be made highly advantageous to the citizens. New York and Chicago are not Glasgow. The question whether municipal ownership and administration can be made advantageous to the citizens of an American city is not conclusively answered by the fact that such ownership and administration have been made successful in a Scotch city. It is still necessary to ask, What conditions in the American city are necessary to make such success probable, and can these conditions be brought about? In answering these questions we take a concrete case, that of New York City, but the general principles will apply equally, though with modifications, to all American cities of considerable size.

I. The city must not tie its hands by granting to any corporation a permanent franchise to conduct any municipal industry. A franchise to an inter-State railroad to enter the city is not one to conduct a municipal industry; but even in such cases the franchise should always be subject to periodical revaluations. No water, gas, telephone, electric, dock, or transportation franchise should be granted except for a moderate term of years. Where it is possible, the city should build and own the plant, as it has built and owns the subways in Boston and New York. If it has not the money, and if constitutional limitations deny it the right to use its credit, as is the case in New York, arrangements should be made in the contract with the operating corporation by which the property may be purchased at a fair valuation by the city. In such arrangements no allowance should be made for the franchise itself, which should expire at the end of the prescribed term. The New York subway, built by money obtained on the city's credit, is leased on such terms that the rent repays the city the cost and interest in fifty years. If the other subways are built by private capital, the payment to the city should be adequate to enable the city to repay the private capital advanced and to own the subway at the end of the franchise term. Precedent has already been made for this by the contract of the city with the Interborough Railway Company for the use of certain streets and highways in the Bronx. In this contract a rental is determined on, and it is provided that the plant and property of the Interborough Railway shall become the property of the city on the termination of the grant, by the payment for the property at a fair valuation, "excluding any value derived from the franchise." Another method would be to apply the rental as it falls due to the payment for the property, so that at the end of the term the property should belong to the city without further payment. Whether, if a permanent franchise has already been granted, the city can find any way to bring it to a close, and, if so, how, are questions we do not here discuss.

II. If the city is to carry on municipal industries—as water, lighting, dock, telephone, and transportation systems—it is indispensable that the city secure for that purpose honest and capable officials. In Glasgow only rate and rent payers vote in municipal elections. "The slums," says Mr. Shaw in his volume on "Municipal Government in Great Britain," "evade the tax-collector and sacrifice the franchise." Moreover, "the extraordinarily severe laws against bribery, direct and indirect, apply to municipal elections; and it is next to impossible to get a British voter to the polls who does not contemplate the contest

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with some glimmering of interest and intelligence." Whether it would be advantageous to attach a property or tax-paying qualification to the suffrage in American cities it is useless to discuss; because such limitation of the suffrage, however desirable, is impracticable. It is easy to attach qualifications to the suffrage when it is granted, but almost impossible to do so afterwards.

The result which Glasgow secures by a limited suffrage, American cities must generally secure by another method. By the extension and enforcement of the Australian ballot system, and the abolition of the provision allowing the illiterate voter to take some one into the polling-booth with him, a *quasi* educational qualification can be attached to the ballot. Quite as important is a political reconstruction of the city to adjust it to modern needs. The municipal council in most of our cities is patterned after the State and National legislative bodies. But a municipal council is not analogous to a State or National legislature. It is far more analogous to the board of directors of a commercial corporation. The recent act of the New York Legislature in taking from the New York Board of Aldermen, as its municipal council is called, the power of granting franchises and conferring it upon the Board of Estimate and Apportionment is a step in the right direction. But it is only a step. What is really wanted is the abolition of the municipal council which is elected by wards, and the substitution therefor of a small board of not more than fifteen nor less than nine, who shall be elected on a general ticket, or by boroughs, and shall represent the entire city. Experience has proved that ward representation tends to ward politics—the bane of our municipal system. It has been proved that it is almost impossible to get threescore or more of men who are honest and capable, and who will give their time to the details of city administration. And it has also been proved, by the value of the services rendered by the Rapid Transit Commission and by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, that it is possible to get a small board of competent, honest, and public-spirited men. The work of a city council is administrative, not legislative; and for such work a small body, not a large one, is needed.

III. Of course any industrial system, whether carried on by a municipal or a commercial corporation, should be freed from partisan politics. If the city is to do business, it must do it on business principles. We do not here urge any particular method of Civil Service Reform; but the spirit of Civil Service Reform must be carried out in good faith. Appointments and removals must both be made for the good of the service. Motormen must be appointed because they can run an electric car, not because they can run a primary. That this is the spirit in which the Glasgow municipal industries are carried on our correspondent makes clear. That such industries cannot be successfully carried on in any other spirit Mr. Dalrymple is reported to have declared very explicitly. If Mayor Dunne has really declared, as he is reported to have done, that when Chicago takes over the street railways he intends to treat the employees as day laborers, and so make them subject to both appointment and removal regardless of merit, he has dealt a serious blow to the cause of municipal operation of municipal industries. The administration of a municipal industry must demand nothing more of its employees than fidelity and competence in the discharge of their duties, and must expect nothing else.

IV. Finally, the city must not expect to make money out of its industries; it must expect only to make them self-supporting. It may be that private corporations will pay into the city treasury more money in the form of taxes than the municipally conducted industry will pay in the form of profits. "The dividends which the city reaps," says our correspondent, "are in the form of civic betterment, lower death rate, and improvement in social conditions." The city will pay here, as it has paid abroad, higher wages; it will prescribe for its employees here, as it has prescribed for them there, shorter hours. It will give to the traveling public here, as it has given there, lower rates. In other words, the profits which have gone into the pockets of capitalists as a payment for

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their money and their services will be distributed partly among the employees in better labor conditions and partly among the traveling public in better accommodations and lowered prices. No more may be expected to be paid into the city treasury than is necessary to accumulate a fund for large repairs, for important extensions, and for unexpected exigencies.

There is no good reason why any American city should not have an experience parallel to that of Glasgow, provided it will comply with the necessary conditions: provided it will not part with the control of its streets by granting indefinite or perpetual franchises; will frame its city government for administrative rather than for legislative purposes; will develop a civic pride and a public spirit which will inspire men of integrity and of ability to serve the city; will exclude all partisan spirit from the administration of its municipal industries; and will look for its profits, not to treasury balances, but to a purer and better municipal life.

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Norway and Sweden

The action of the Storthing, the National Assembly of Norway, in declaring the union between that country and Sweden dissolved, and affirming that the King of Sweden is no longer King of Norway, lacked the dramatic elements which usually accompany revolutions in southern Europe, but was thoroughly characteristic of the Norwegian temperament. The event was not unexpected; the possibility of its occurrence has been pointed out in the columns of The Outlook for at least ten years. It has been delayed by the cautious and practical temper of the Norwegian people, by the possible difficulties attending the separation of the two countries, and by the personal popularity of the King. Whether or not the action of the Storthing was wise remains to be seen. Norway has enjoyed almost absolute freedom of action, quite as much so as Sweden; the bonds that bound the two countries together rested lightly on both. There are very serious perils facing the two countries in case they become antagonistic; and it is doubtful whether the mere fact of independence, dissociated from the question of freedom or the fundamental rights of a people, will be a sufficient compensation to the Norwegians for what they may lose. To understand the situation a brief résumé of the events which led up to it is necessary.

It is at least five centuries since Norway has led an independent life as a nation. In the fourteenth century the sovereignty came to a Danish king, and until 1814 Norway was under Danish rule. She was, in effect, a Danish province, though she had nearly all the rights and opportunities of an independent country. During the first century of her dependence, Sweden was also a Danish province, but in 1523 Gustavus Vasa, the Swedish patriot, as the result of a successful rebellion, made Sweden an independent State, Norway remaining under Danish control. Under the leadership of the family of this distinguished ruler, Sweden became a power in northern Europe, and Gustavus Adolphus, by his genius, his championship of Protestantism, and his ardent and fiery patriotism, delivered Sweden from a coalition of Russia, Poland, and Denmark. Sweden was not able, however, to hold the position which Gustavus Adolphus had secured for her; and at the beginning of the last century Finland, which had long been a Swedish dependency, was lost, completing the series of disasters by which the Swedes had lost all their territory on the mainland.

When Bernadotte, born a country lawyer, but rising to the position of a Marshal of France under the leadership of Napoleon, was at the height of his great reputation, the King of Sweden, Charles XIII., was childless, and a coalition of influential leaders, chiefly nobles, proposed that Bernadotte should be elected Crown Prince and successor to the throne. The Swedish Diet accepted the scheme, and Bernadotte was elected, became the real ruler of Sweden, joined in the coalition against the French, and, by the help of England, forced Denmark in 1814 to hand over Norway to Sweden; Sweden,

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on her part, ceding parts of Pomerania to Denmark. The Norwegian Diet refused to submit to the arrangement; but Bernadotte, an intrepid and resourceful soldier, invaded and conquered Norway. When this able man came to the throne as Charles XIV. in 1818, the two countries were united, each keeping its old code of laws, its National Assembly, with the power to legislate for its own territory, subject to the veto of the King, and each being represented in the Royal Cabinet.

From the beginning there have been many sources of irritation between the two countries. Different parties in Norway have endeavored to create a sentiment in favor of independence, and national movements from time to time have been directed to a revival of the Norse dialect. The Norwegians have claimed and exercised almost all the powers of a sovereign State in their domestic affairs. They have lived under a constitutional government, while Sweden did not gain complete concession of constitutional rule until about forty years ago. Again and again the Norwegian Storthing has refused to vote adequate funds for the army and navy. It has endeavored to substitute militia for a regular military establishment. In 1890 an agitation was begun for a separate consular service with a separate Minister of Foreign Affairs. Of late the Norwegians have advanced their demands to a separate diplomatic service. One constant source of friction between the two countries has been their different trade systems. Free trade is practically complete in Norway, while for the last twenty-five years high tariff has been established in Sweden. This has compelled the readjustment of commercial treaties with foreign powers; such treaties were formerly made conjointly by the two countries; it has, of course, been necessary to substitute separate and distinct agreements with the two countries, and the result has been the imposing of unusual and extraordinary difficulties on the consuls of the two countries. These officers have had to choose in many cases between the interests of one country or the other. Of late years both countries have been driven to seek larger foreign markets for their goods and have come into sharper competition.

In 1885 the Swedish constitution was amended in such a way as to place the exclusive control of foreign affairs, including the appointment of consuls, in the hands of a Swedish Foreign Minister, responsible to the Swedish Parliament alone; formerly these appointments were in the hands of the King, who had the liberty of placing a Norwegian at the head of the Foreign Office. On this question of separate consular service all parties in Norway have been united for nearly fifteen years, the ultra-democratic party insisting also that Norway should have its own Foreign Office. The Swedes at first took the ground that the consular and diplomatic service must be under the same direction; but in 1902 a committee, which represented both countries, unanimously reported a plan for making Norwegian consuls responsible to Norwegian authorities and Swedish consuls responsible to Swedish authorities. The committee also decided that the Swedish Foreign Minister should no longer give any directions regarding the consular affairs of Norway. On this report an agreement was signed in 1903 establishing separate consular service for the two countries. This report was signed by the King as a joint resolution, and the two Governments agreed to work out their own schemes of distinct consular service in their own way. Norway acted at once under the agreement, and framed her own system; but Sweden has refused to act, and the agreement has therefore been without effect.

Back of these specific causes of difference lie very important differences of character and temperament. The Norwegians, like their ancestors, who were among the most audacious and adventurous sailors, as they were the makers of some of the noblest myths, live in a country of magnificent scenery, washed by tumultuous seas, penetrated by deep bays. They are at once mountaineers and sailors; bold, independent, and thoroughly democratic in taste and temperament, largely farmers and sailors, accustomed to the management of their own affairs from the very beginning, and

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never losing that management during five centuries of more or less intimate relations with other countries. The Swedes, on the other hand, live in a more fertile agricultural country, are a more urbane and polished people, have greater love of the fine arts, and a leaning toward an aristocratic order of society. The trade differences between the two countries are positive, and have involved actual hardship to Norway; but these differences have probably been less effective in dissolving the union than those differences of temperament and character which, although intangible, are among the most influential and controlling influences that bear on the action ot men.

By a resolution unanimously adopted by the Storthing the union between the two countries has been declared dissolved, and an address presented to the King, entirely respectful in expression, disclaiming all motives of personal antagonism, and suggesting that his Majesty should co-operate in the selection of a prince of his own house to govern Norway. An address to the people, issued at the same time from the same source, urged firmness and tranquillity, declared that all ordinances of the Government must be respected, and provided practical methods for conducting the administration of affairs. The King has declined to accede to the action of the Storthing. There has been no official expression of the attitude of the Powers toward the action of Norway as yet, and friends of both countries fear that their separation may afford the opportunity which both Russia and Germany have been seeking for years, of reducing one or both of the countries to the condition of provinces. This is not an age in which small countries can disregard the danger of contiguity to great Powers. Countries like Belgium, Switzerland, Holland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden must co-operate if they are to preserve their independence; and it is a serious question whether the Scandinavians are not facing perils far greater than the inconveniences which they have experienced under the arrangement which the Norwegians have now dissolved. War between the two countries is very improbable.

The Expectation of Love

Burne-Jones's "Dawn," a lovely figure, moves through the slumbering town with clashing cymbals, her eyes still veiled with sleep, her form still relaxed; borne forward, not by her will, but by the wind of the morning breathing life across the world. At every gate in the city, on every highway, in every square, Love waits—silent, watchful, expectant. She may have traveled far, but she has never been borne forward by any force which swept her along as the drowsy Dawn is swept; she has been drawn on by hopes and anticipations which rise out of the depths of her own heart. She may have had great happiness, incredible good fortune, by the way; but her face is set toward the future, and the past is dear to her, not for what it gave, but for what it promised. She has heard many words that set her heart beating, but she is still waiting for the great word that shall convey the ultimate secret of her nature, that shall put her in complete possession of that which is already hers. Many things content, but nothing satisfies her; she counts her wealth, not with a brooding but with an uplifted face. She hoards nothing; everything she has is at risk in the great adventure, and the winds of heaven everywhere bear forward or beat back her argosies. She builds no secure places where she may hide her gains; she puts them into the venture upon which she has staked all her fortune. She may suffer cruelly; her heart may be torn and her hands pierced; but her wealth cannot be taken from her, for it is stored in the secret places of her soul.

However much Life may offer Love, no gift fully compasses her desires, for none is great enough to occupy her soul. When her hands are full, her heart cries out for more and better things; and no sooner have her eyes rested on the treasures which the days have brought her than they are lifted again to the larger gifts which the hands of to-morrow are silently and mysteriously bringing her. With Love there was a beginning, although it seems to her that behind that memorable day there was a shadowy procession of days always moving toward her from the remotest

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past; but there is no ending. From the summit of to-day the shining hills of to-morrow are always visible; and though she rests here for the night, her thoughts are always there. She works and strives and suffers and wears the flower of joy in this present hour; but, however intent she may be on service or sacrifice or happiness, there is always a look in her eyes as of something still dreamed of even in the busiest or the darkest hour. So Love travels through life with busy hands and a full heart, but with an eager glance forward; content whatever comes her way, and self-forgetful whatever fortune befalls her, but never satisfied.

This eager expectation, often disappointed but never surrendered, has its roots in the immortality of Love and is the manifestation of her magical power of growth; she witnesses to another and a diviner order of being. She never sees what she possesses apart from what it must grow to; she is not blind to its limitations, but she is always aware of what it may become; and to her prophetic heart what it may be it already is. With Love there is no present; so eager is she for the best in those to whom she gives herself that she always forestalls them and stands beside them with radiant eyes far down the path on which they are moving with slow and halting steps. Those who hear her words and know her devotion sometimes find them exaggerated and even inexplicable, and go about saying that she is blind. She sees all that they see, but she sees also what does not lie within their vision, the man that is to be. Love gives herself, not to that which is achieved, but to that which is possible. When others surrender hope, she lights it with fresh sacrifice; when all seems lost, she sits clad with loneliness as with a garment, but with expectation still lighting the darkness of the hour. Because she gives herself to the highest and demands the highest, she believes in the highest. Here is the secret of her healing and lifting power: the silent, steadfast, invincible appeal of her faith. How often has it happened that, when all other appeals went for naught, her appeal reached, roused, and redeemed, for to the weak and untrue that look in her eyes is like the light of God; searching, smiling, revealing, purifying.

In all the ways of life, where cheap cynicisms, arid doubts, cowardly maxims of prudence, are accepted as wisdom, this figure alone bears the knowledge of life in her heart. Bitter indeed has been the draught of the cup of evil held to her lips by those whom she has followed with steadfast feet into the lowest hells; but for her there is no hell save that which cleanses. Beside what men call the lost soul she waits with expectation in her eyes; for through clouds and darkness she sees her own spirit enthroned and invincible. Pierced, scorned, and rejected, she lifts her eyes, and the vision always meets her expectation. Among the blind, the dumb, the false, she alone sees and knows; for she alone discerns the infinite resources of life, she alone has that power of sacrifice which wins against all odds because no man can finally shut the door in its face; she alone is wise because she alone is pure.

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The Spectator

He was an apple-faced, plainly dressed, middle-aged man, with nothing of the Bret Harte gold-miner about him but the simplicity. There was no doubt, however, of the perfect Henry James-ness of the tall, blonde, gay American girl with the admiring and ungrammatical mother, also blonde and handsome, in the seats across the car. And the gray-haired New England spinster, on the way to the Woman's Christian Temperance Union convention, whose session was to begin in Seattle next week, was an unmistakable Mary Wilkins character. The Spectator sat in the little car that takes passengers from the Canadian Pacific and exchanges them for Seattle at a forlorn junction with an impossible refreshment counter, and wondered afresh at that truth which is stranger than fiction, no matter how true the fiction may be to life.

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The impossible refreshment counter had done its work. "I never saw such

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a place," remarked Daisy Miller to her mother. "Not even gum that's any good! Well, I guess we can live till we get to Seattle," and they both smiled, being a healthy, handsome, optimistic pair of Californian Americans. The miner leaned forward, very seriously. "Ladies," he said, "I'm just from the British Columbia mines, and I have some Thompson River apples in my bag"—he had it open at his feet, and dived into it at this—"that I'd be proud to offer you if you'll try them—all of you," including, with marked deference, the Woman's Christian Temperance Union delegate, who stiffened like a ramrod in her embarrassment at being offered apples by a stranger. But the Californians had no such feeling. "Oh, *thank* you!" cried the daughter. "My! aren't they splendid, mommer?" as the big, juicy apples, justly famous along the coast, were handed out. "We're very much obliged," said mamma, and the Spectator gladly accepted a noble specimen. He made some general remarks to the miner, by way of continuing the acquaintance; but the miner clearly had no mind to converse with any but the ladies. "I beg your pardon, ma'am," he said, simply, to the New England woman. "I hope you take no offense in my speaking to you. I haven't seen a lady for six months, and it does me good to see you ladies and hear you talk. My name's Evans—I come from Boston, but I've been out here since I was a boy. My mother and sister live East, and I'm going back there next month. I've been in the mining business pretty near all my life."

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"My! I'd like to see a big gold mine!" cried Daisy Miller, with a dazzling smile. This opened the flood-gates of the miner's eloquence, and he poured out his history in the most direct and astonishing way. In ten minutes the four other occupants of the car knew all about John Evans that his closest friend could—how he had worked, poor and unsuccessful, for years, how the idea of a process for smelting low-grade ores had come to him, how he had toiled on it, failed over and over, finally succeeded, patented his process, and was now beginning to reap its fruits. Even the Woman's Christian Temperance Union delegate listened with prim but unconcealed interest. Daisy Miller's color rose, and her blue eyes sparkled with the true American spirit. "I do admire a self-made man!" she said boldly and sympathetically, and "Gladys always does speak out," her mother murmured, approvingly.

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The Spectator does not just remember how it all happened. The succeeding series of events, though absolutely true, were in a way so fantastic that it seems impossible that they really happened. But, as a matter of fact, in ten minutes more Gladys's mother was telling the miner how her husband had made money in the typewriter manufacture in San Francisco, and he was too busy to leave work, but Gladys wanted to study art, and nothing would do but she must go to Chicago to do it, and her mother to look after her. "Gladys has only worked a year, but she's doing wonderfully. You ought to see her pictures of ballet-girls"—here the New England conscience visibly received another deep shock. "They're just too cute. Her father says she ought to go to Paris—doesn't he, Gladys?" Gladys nodded, not in the least bashful. "The pictures are in my trunk in the baggage-car, mommer," she remarked. The miner rose to the suggestion. "Can't I help you get them out?" he said. "I can fix it with the trainmen." "Why, I guess so," said Gladys's mother. "I'd really like you to see them." And off those two went, while Gladys's mother favored the Spectator and the prim delegate with a lively account of life in Chicago, and various experiences throughout the United States. "I have a lovely souvenir set for chafing-dish parties, plates and forks and all, picked up from places where we've been," she confided to the astonished listeners. "I got two plates from the Canadian Pacific yesterday—we took the train at Medicine Hat—and Gladys got one from 'most every restaurant in Chicago. Last summer her and me and her popper were in a party with the Governor of Arizona and five or six more, and we all took a souvenir from

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the hotels we stopped at, and we just made the Governor take a butter-dish, and how he did laugh about it afterward!"

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By the time that Daisy Miller and the miner came back the Spectator was in such a Bret Harte frame of mind that nothing more surprised him. The Mary Wilkins lady was in an advanced state of shock, making feeble and fluttering remarks. Daisy's sketches were what might have been expected—the amateur poster style. But Daisy herself was so frank and irresistible that no one could have them against her. She "just adored art," she said. Mr. Evans began to feel happy and at home. He asked the ladies if they knew at what hotel to stay in Seattle. He insisted upon their going to the hotel of a personal friend of his, who had "staked" him on more than one occasion when he was "dead broke." Yet there was nothing reckless or irresponsible in this friendly miner. He was solid, simple, and eminently respectable, enough so to convince even the New England delegate. The climax seemed to be reached when he rummaged in his bag for a large, carefully kept check-book, and proudly displayed a check of $50,000, drawn to his mother the week before. "She has the first right to it, ladies," he said, with filial simplicity. After that the delegate was won, horse, foot, and dragoons.

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At Seattle the Spectator, who had no special hotel in view, was easily borne along in Mr. Evans's train. He was prepared for anything. But when he came back from a walk, to get ready for dinner, he was met by two resplendent beings, in one of whom he barely recognized his new friend the miner. Mr. Evans was shaved and had on an evening suit. He limped perceptibly in new boots several sizes too small. His companion, whom he introduced as a fellow-miner, had presented him, for old time's sake, with a gold match-safe, set with one good-sized diamond and many smaller ones. Success and bay-rum radiated from Mr. Evans, and he had bought tickets for the minstrels (performing in Seattle for one night only) for the whole party. "The ladies are in the parlor," he remarked, "and we'll all have a table together for dinner."

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The Spectator did not object. As in a disordered dream, he wanted to see the thing through. He was firm upon but one point—that Gladys's mother should never induce him to steal a "souvenir" from the table. But she was not seated near him. The remembrance of the minstrel show, where they all went in late and had the very front seats, will never perish from the Spectator's mind. It was not much of a show, but the miner enjoyed it with childlike admiration, and Daisy Miller laughed wholeheartedly. The little prim delegate sat next Gladys's mother, and the Spectator heard her whisper: "Mrs. Allen, I wish we had just told poor Mr. Evans not to wear those shoes. His old ones would have been all right, and it's a shame to have him so uncomfortable." New England was showing its soft and sterling side—dear, prim New England! The Spectator lost sight of his fellow-travelers after that night; but a week later, in Portland, buying a ticket for San Francisco, he met them all filing into the restaurant from a newly arrived train. The miner was beginning to have a proprietary air; the Woman's Christian Temperance Union delegate had her gray hair waved, and looked ten years younger. "I'm going down to stay a week with Mrs. Allen," she confided to the Spectator, "now that the convention's over. Mr. Evans wanted to show Gladys Seattle. You know she adores self-made men. I shouldn't wonder a bit"—and there Mrs. Allen interrupted, and the Spectator had to guess the rest. If the wedding did ever come off, Henry James should have given the bride away, Bret Harte should have been there in the spirit as best man, and Mary Wilkins as matron of honor. The Spectator still feels as if it were too good to be true. But he can take his affidavit that it happened just the same—and America is a great country!

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THE STORY OF PORT ARTHUR[1]

By George Kennan

Special Correspondent of The Outlook in the Far East

X.—Life in the Japanese Trenches

THE failure of the second attempt to storm the Russian forts was mainly due to the inability of the Japanese to get across the moats. The scaling ladders with which the attacking columns were provided proved to be too short, and although a few men succeeded in obtaining a foothold on the crests of the counterscarps, they could not bridge the deep, walled ditches that lay between them and the parapets, nor could they descend into these chasms without great danger of being annihilated by the fire of rifles and machine guns from the subterranean casemates and caponieres. When they found themselves in this situation, the first idea, apparently, that occurred to them was that it might be possible to fill up the moats by throwing sand-bags into them; and as soon as they had established themselves securely, and had opened trenches of communication with the front parallels, they made an attempt to carry this plan into execution. It soon became apparent, however, that the filling up of such excavations was a task of gigantic magnitude. In order to make a causeway twenty feet wide across the moat of Ehrlungshan, they would have to throw into the chasm nearly one-third as much earth as they had taken out of their trench of approach; and to bring such a quantity of filling material from the other side of the valley and sew it up in bags was manifestly impracticable. They soon abandoned, therefore, this method of attack, and began sinking shafts into the glacis, in front of each fort, with a view to laying and exploding mines behind the counterscarp and filling up the moat by blowing into it the débris of its own shattered wall. The Russians tried to stop these sapping operations by shelling the advanced trenches and parallels, by making sorties at night, and by throwing hand-grenades and high explosives into the shafts or pits where the besiegers were at work; but the most that they could do was to inflict loss, and for loss the Japanese were prepared. If half a dozen men were disabled by an exploding shell, half a dozen more were ready to take their places, and the digging went on as if nothing had happened. The progress made was slow, because the sappers, after getting through a superficial layer of earth, had to work in hard cemented rubble or solid concrete. But day after day the shafts were deepened and the tunnels extended, until, on the 16th of November, five mines under the glacis of Sungshushan and three behind the counterscarp of Ehrlungshan were ready for the fuses.

On the following morning, Lieutenant Oata informed us that the Sungshushan mines would be fired at two o'clock that afternoon, and suggested that we go to General Nogi's hill headquarters to witness the explosions. I had been confined to my bed for three or four days with remittent fever, and was rather doubtful of my ability to walk to the front, climb a six-hundred-foot hill, and stand for an hour or two in a cold wind on the summit; but I wanted very much to see the results of the Japanese sapping work, and, finding that I could hire a donkey and a boy from our Chinese landlord, I put on an extra undershirt and a heavy overcoat, filled my flask with whisky as a precaution against collapse, mounted a patient little beast whose ears were almost as long as his legs, and started—Mr. Curtis and Lieutenant Oata going ahead on foot.

When, about an hour later, we reached the summit of headquarters hill, we found

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General Nogi and the officers of his staff assembled in a long, wet, and rather deep trench. On the side toward the enemy this trench was protected by a low, loosely built wall of broken stone, through the chinks of which one might look without risk of being seen and fired upon. So far as I could discover, there was no change in the general situation. Two or three howitzer batteries of the Japanese were in action, and a few Russian guns, in distant positions, were making a feeble and desultory reply; but Sungshushan and Ehrlungshan were silent, and, even with the aid of a powerful Goerz-Trieder glass, I could not see a living human figure, or a movement of any kind, in the whole extensive field. The only men in sight were the dead Japanese soldiers lying on the brown, shell-furrowed slopes of the opposite hills. If the Russians were aware that the glacis of Sungshushan was about to be blown up, they gave no indication of such knowledge. Now and then, at irregular intervals, they threw a few shells or shrapnel cases into that part of the field, but there seemed to be no serious attempt to block or obstruct the Japanese operations by means of heavy and continuous bombardment. I thought, at the time, that they were trying to save ammunition for a more dangerous emergency; but when General Stoessel surrendered, on the 3d of January, he still had on hand 67,000 rounds of ammunition for siege and field guns, 110,000 rounds for one-and-one-half-inch and two-inch quick-firers, and 25,000 rounds for machine guns and Maxims, or enough for one month's consumption at the rate of 6,737 rounds per day. If he had used half of this ammunition in a serious and persistent attempt to dislodge the Japanese from their positions in front of the eastern forts, he might not have been compelled to surrender until February or March, and General Nogi's army might not have been able to take part in the decisive battle of Mukden.

The first of the Sungshushan mines exploded at twenty minutes past two. It liberated a cloud of brownish smoke and made a faint, dull report; but it threw no débris into the air, and as a spectacle was unsatisfactory and disappointing. I had seen single shell-bursts which, to the eye, were far more energetic and destructive. The explosion was disappointing, moreover, in that it failed to elicit a response of any kind from the Russians. So far as I could see, they paid no attention to it whatever; and when, after a second and a third mine had exploded, there was no increase in the Russian fire, and no sign of unusual activity in any of their positions, I decided to mount my donkey, ride home, and charge up the afternoon to profit and loss. Exploding mines might be destructive to Russian fortifications, but they did not make show enough to pay an observer for riding three miles and a half without a saddle on a gable-roofed donkey, climbing a six-hundred-foot hill, and standing for two hours in a muddy trench. When we got back to our quarters, late in the afternoon, I took ten more grains of quinine, and went directly to bed, resolving that I would not leave the house again until I should completely recover my health and strength. In front of Port Arthur, however, it was useless to make such resolutions, because we never knew what a day might bring forth.

At ten o'clock on the following morning Lieutenant Oata, accompanied by Major Yamaguchi, press censor and English interpreter on General Nogi's staff, came to our house on horseback, and asked me if I would not like to make an excursion to the village of Shuishi and the trenches of the First Division. A saddle-horse would be provided for me if I cared to go, so that I might make the trip without undue fatigue, and an opportunity would be given me to see something of Japanese operations in the part of the line that faced the fort of Sungshushan. Although I did not feel equal to a walk of ten or twelve miles, I thought I might be able to ride that distance, and as the weather had suddenly become pleasant and fairly warm, I decided to accept the invitation. Half an hour later we rode out of the headquarters village of Liuchiatun, crossed the railway, and proceeded westward along the base of the high ridge which separates the headquarters valley from the valley in front of the Russian forts.

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Over the narrow-gauge tramway that ran parallel with our road soldiers were pushing small flat cars loaded with ponderous 11-inch shells; here and there, on the level floor of the valley, we could see long lines of one-horse carts transporting provisions and ammunition to the headquarters of the First Division; and a mile or two west of Hoozan we met a procession of a hundred and fifty stretcher-bearers carrying to the railway station at Choreishi forty or fifty officers and men who had just been wounded in front of Sungshushan and 203-Meter Hill. Such trains of wounded came back from the front almost every day, and afforded conclusive evidence—if evidence were needed—that life in the trenches was extra-hazardous at all times, and that the loss of the Japanese in their sapping operations was steady and continuous even if it was not great.

For a distance of two or three miles from the railway the road that we followed was perfectly protected from the enemy's fire by the intervening chain of hills; but when, after a ride of an hour or more, we turned southward toward Shuishi, through a gap or pass in the range, the great forts of Itzushan and Antzushan loomed up before us, and we began to see Russian shells bursting in the middle distance ahead. The approach to Shuishi, as I subsequently learned, was generally regarded as dangerous, owing to the fact that it lay open to the enemy's fire from two or three different directions. It was within easy rifle range of Sungshushan and Ehrlungshan, could be bombarded from any of the Russian positions in the center, and was overlooked and dominated on the right by the high and powerful fort of Itzushan. For this reason, most persons who had to go to Shuishi in the daytime abandoned the open, unsheltered highway, and rode or walked the last mile to the village in the shelter afforded by a dry, cañon-like watercourse, whose steep walls were high enough to conceal and protect even a mounted man. Whether my Japanese companions were unaware of the danger in this part of the line, or whether they thought it beneath their dignity to take refuge in a ditch, I don't know; but Lieutenant Oata, who was ahead, rode coolly along the highway as if he were taking a canter in Hibiya Park, Tokyo. Suddenly, the quick zip of a bullet from the rifle of a sharpshooter in one of the forts ahead gave him an unpleasant shock of surprise, and, throwing himself off his horse with extraordinary agility, he dragged the animal, at a run, into the shelter of the dry watercourse. I never hesitate to follow a good example, so, reining my horse quickly to the right, I rode down into the deep ditch, where I was joined a moment later by Major Yamaguchi. As we approached the village, the ditch became a sort of miniature cañon, whose high perpendicular walls made it impossible to see where we were going, but, on the other hand, afforded us perfect concealment and protection.

When, after a ride of ten or fifteen minutes more, we emerged from this narrow, winding gulch, we found ourselves in the deserted village of Shuishi, which before the war was the largest and most important native settlement between Port Arthur and Yinkow. At first glance it reminded me a little of St. Pierre, Martinique, after the eruption of Mont Pelée. It had been shelled by the Russians until half of its houses were in ruins; its streets were filled with heaps of stones from shattered walls; its Chinese population had fled to safer localities; and it looked like a town that had been partly shaken down by an earthquake and had then been abandoned by its surviving inhabitants. In one place, under the shelter of a high bank, we saw half a dozen Chinese hovels that were still occupied, and here and there, against the side walls of houses that had not been destroyed, Japanese soldiers had pitched a few small, brown, cubical tents; but with these exceptions there was hardly a sign of human life or activity in the whole ruined settlement. In a concealed position, seventy-five or a hundred yards away, a Japanese battery was bombarding the fort of Ehrlungshan, and every few minutes the air was shaken by the heavy, ear-shattering bang of a big naval gun and the quivering hurtle of an eight-inch shell as it took flight over our heads.

Major Yamaguchi and Lieutenant

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Oata had an idea, apparently, that we should find in Shuishi the field headquarters of General Nakamura, the commanding officer in this part of the line, but upon making inquiries of a stray soldier we learned that the general and his staff were living under canvas in a deep, dry gulch, far up on the slope of Sungshushan. Following this soldier's directions, we crossed the western end of the village, through streets half filled up with the débris of shattered houses, and plunged into the most extraordinary and bewildering labyrinth of trenches, gulches, parallels, and saps that I had ever seen or imagined.

In order to make clear the operations and methods of the Japanese in front of Sungshushan, I must call particular attention to the important part played therein by what I shall here call "gulches." During the midsummer rainy season the immense quantities of water which fall on the Port Arthur hills run down the steep slopes in raging torrents, cutting out in the flanks of every ridge or eminence an extensive series of deep, radiating channels. Owing, perhaps, to some peculiarity of the stony, alluvial soil with which the hills are clothed, these channels are not V-shaped ravines, with banks sloping at an angle of forty-five or fifty degrees, as they would be in most countries, but are true cañons, with walls that are nearly if not quite perpendicular. In most places it is impossible to get down into them without a ladder, and if, in trying to ascend such an eminence as 203-Meter Hill, you chance to encounter them, there is nothing to do but go around. When the rains cease, in August or September, the water quickly runs off, leaving both hillsides and gulches perfectly dry, and in October, November, and December there is so little precipitation that it is perfectly safe to use these miniature cañons, not only as avenues of approach to the summits of the hills, but as places of shelter and residence. Since they are often twenty-five or thirty feet in depth, their high, vertical walls afford almost complete protection from transverse shell fire, and the Japanese, who are quick to take advantage of topographical peculiarities of contour, used them in the later stages of the siege as sites for camps. They were thus able to mass several thousand men in close proximity to the Russian forts and in positions of comparative safety. On the slopes of Shuishi and Sungshushan there were at least a dozen of these deep, dry gulches, every one of which contained a single or double line of tents, pitched closely together under the shelter of the high, perpendicular walls. Traverses and parallels connected these gulches one with another, and through the whole unified system of natural and artificial excavations ran two zigzag trenches of approach, which had in the aggregate a length of nearly two miles. Such was the bewildering labyrinth in which we found ourselves when we left our horses in Shuishi and set out on foot in search of General Nakamura.

The first thing that strikes a newcomer in the Sungshushan trenches is the intricacy and complexity of the great system of saps, traverses, gulches, and parallels which extends, like an immense maze, from the village of Shuishi to the moat of the Russian fort. Every six or eight rods passages or galleries open on the right hand or the left; one moment you are in a deep, narrow, uninhabited trench and the next in a stony cañon filled with soldiers and tents; the impossibility of seeing out, and the constant zigzagging back and forth, soon deprive you of all sense of direction; and at the end of ten minutes you feel as much bewildered and lost as if you were wandering, without a guide, in an unknown part of Canton. I am quite sure that if I had been left to myself I should not have found General Nakamura's headquarters in half a day. At almost every turn we had to ask some Japanese soldier to direct us, and in spite of such direction we frequently turned into the wrong trench, gulch, or parallel, and were compelled to retrace our steps and make a new departure.

Next to the labyrinthine intricacy of the siege trenches, the things that impressed me most were the extraordinary contrasts and incongruities which they everywhere presented. When you go, under fire, directly in front of half a dozen hostile forts, and begin to mingle with the soldiers who live there, you

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naturally expect to see some signs of flurry and excitement, if not of apprehension. The booming of siege guns close at hand, the whistling and moaning of shells overhead, and, occasionally, the sharp bang of an exploding shrapnel case, seem to you events of the first magnitude; and if you are not exceptionally fearless, or unusually cool-headed, you have to hold on to yourself in order to keep from showing the excitement or the nervousness that you really feel. You can hardly imagine the possibility of anybody's regarding such a state of things with perfect indifference, and when you suddenly come upon a soldier sitting on his heels in the bottom of a trench coolly reading a newspaper, you are more or less surprised. We were surprised in this way not only once but many times. In some of the gulches through which we passed all the activities of normal life were being carried on just as they would have been in a Tokyo street. Siege guns were booming on both sides, shells were crisscrossing overhead, and now and then, between the heavier explosions, I could hear the sharp, quick zip of a passing rifle bullet; but the inhabitants of the gulches paid no more attention to such sounds than they would have paid to the rumble of a street-car or the rattle of a jinrikisha on the Ginza. In one place a soldier-barber was cutting a comrade's hair; in another a man was boiling, or re-heating, a ration of rice over a charcoal fire made in a tin biscuit-case filled with sand; in a third a naked soldier was taking a sponge bath and rubbing himself down with a blue-and-white cotton towel; and all along, under or in front of the brown shelter-tents, men who happened to be off duty were cooking, bathing, washing clothes, sewing up sand-bags, cutting hair, or reading newspapers, with an indifference to shells and shrapnel which fairly made me ashamed of the quick, excited beating of my own heart. To me the sounds of battle were at least exhilarating, and the bang of an exploding shrapnel case in the near vicinity was quite enough to make me lose interest, temporarily, in the cigarette that I was trying to smoke; but these hardened trench-dwellers regarded the attempts which the Russians were making to kill them with a disrespect that was positively indecent. When you fire a ten-inch shell at a man, you have a right to expect that he will at least look up as the missile goes over his head! However, I myself took interest enough in Russian projectiles to make up for the indifference of the Japanese. Shells and shrapnel were not "back numbers" to me, and for the latter, in particular, I had a feeling of profound respect.

But peril overhead and indifference below—shells hurtling across the sky and teakettles boiling peacefully on earth, shrapnel cases bursting in mid-air and soldiers taking sponge-baths in front of their tents—did not exhaust the possibilities in the way of contrast and incongruity. The trenches and gulches not only served as kitchens, bathing-places, barber-shops, and reading-rooms, but also contained graveyards, flower gardens, and telephones. As the Russian fire made it impossible for the Japanese to go outside the trenches for the purpose of burying their dead, they made semicircular excavations here and there in one wall of the trench, deposited therein the bodies of officers who were subsequently to be taken to Japan, and then, replacing the earth, erected over every grave one of the square inscribed posts that are so common in the cemeteries of Tokyo. Between Shuishi and the front we passed three or four of these trench graveyards, and in some of them there were as many as fifteen or twenty posts, each bearing, in black Chinese ideographs, the name of the officer there buried, with the date and place of his death.

Graveyards, however, on a battlefield did not seem so incongruous and out of place as cultivated flowers. Death, in trenches that are constantly under fire, is a thing to be expected, but the mind fails to establish any link of association between bursting shells and flower gardens. Certainly nobody but a Japanese would ever think of bringing plants from home in pots and setting them out in the bottom of a deep, narrow trench only three or four hundred yards from the parapet of an enemy's fort. And yet, between Shuishi and General Nakamura's headquarters I saw in two dif-

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ferent places clumps of blossoming asters and chrysanthemums which soldiers had evidently brought, with infinite care, from Japan, and had set out in prepared soil on the floor of one of the main trenches of approach. The love of nature and of home must be very strong when it impels a man to bring a growing chrysanthemum from the little garden of his childhood, set it out in the bottom of a trench, and then tend and water it through all the hardships and perils of a long and desperate siege.

Telephones we saw in the trenches in a number of places, and the familiar sound of the call-bell and the disjointed, one-sided conversations that we overheard as we passed the telephone stations seemed as strange and incongruous to one sense as the asters and chrysanthemums were to another. The things themselves were common and familiar enough, but they seemed wholly out of place in that environment.

The trenches on the slope of Sungshushan did not differ, essentially, from those that I had previously seen in the part of the field occupied by the Ninth Division, except that they were perhaps a little deeper and had been cut through more stony ground. Protecting bridges had been thrown across them here and there, where they were exposed to longitudinal fire, and in many places sand-bags had been used to heighten their walls so that riflemen could not see into them from the commanding hills of Itzushan and Ehrlungshan. In the gulches intersected by, or laterally connected with, the two main trenches of approach lived the whole of General Nakamura's brigade, and although more than half of the men were encamped within a few hundred yards of the fort that they were besieging, the high, vertical walls of the dry cañons in which their tents stood afforded them such complete protection that the Russians could not possibly dislodge them. The brigade had lost, in its operations against Sungshushan, about one thousand men; but most of them had been killed or wounded in repelling sorties, in sapping work at the extreme front, or in the desperate struggle for possession of the outlying Sungshushan redoubt which I described in a previous article. In the gulches where the camps were situated there were comparatively few casualties, and the troops there had become so accustomed to ineffectual bombardment that they regarded shells and shrapnel with perfect indifference.

In the trenches of the Ninth Division hot food was carried to the soldiers, three times a day, from the headquarters kitchen under the bluff; but on the slope of Sungshushan there was room in the gulches for "light housekeeping," and the men boiled tea and cooked rice for themselves over charcoal fires made in braziers, or in tin biscuit-cases filled with sand. Boiled water was brought to them in square kerosene-cans suspended from the ends of shoulder-poles, and all garbage, or matter that was likely to become offensive, was taken out in baskets or cans carried in the same way. Every possible sanitary precaution seemed to have been taken, and the latrines in the gulches and at the corners of the zigzags, as well as the gulches and trenches themselves, were kept scrupulously clean. In a walk of two miles or more through cañons, galleries, and saps, I did not see a single accumulation of refuse matter, nor become conscious of any offensive smell, although, of course, all the conditions of life were restricted and abnormal.

After a long but interesting walk below the surface of the ground we finally reached the headquarters of General Nakamura's brigade about one o'clock in the afternoon. It was situated high up on the slope of Sungshushan, only three hundred yards from the Russian fort, and consisted of two square, flat-roofed tents, of brown canvas, pitched closely together, in a deep cul-de-sac at the head of a gulch where there had once been a waterfall. I could not imagine a camp's being better protected in anything short of a railway tunnel. General Nakamura himself was directing operations in another part of the field; but Colonel Watanabe and Captain Ishikawa, of the Second Regiment, gave us a cordial welcome, and when we had taken seats on sand-bags covered with red blankets and refreshed ourselves with two or three cups of hot, colorless tea, we felt quite at home. After we had

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discussed the war, the siege, and the Presidential election in America for twenty minutes or half an hour, Colonel Watanabe said, "I presume you want to see the sapping operations up on the edge of the moat, and, if so, it would be well to start now. The Russian fire, as a rule, is not so heavy in the middle of the day as it becomes later in the afternoon, when the sun gets around to the westward, and it will be safest to postpone luncheon and go at once." I doubted very much, myself, whether a position on the edge of the Sungshushan moat would be particularly safe at any time; but we were all anxious to see what had been accomplished by the mine explosions of the previous day, and were ready to take any reasonable risk. Captain Ishikawa volunteered to act in the capacity of guide; and, following his lead, we climbed out of the gulch and started up a steep, zigzag trench in the direction of the fort. It soon became apparent that we had reached, at last, the zone of active and incessant fighting. The bottom of the trench was covered with a thick layer of cartridge-shells; soldiers in outer clothing of earth-colored burlaps were standing on sand-bag platforms, looking cautiously through chinks in the sand-bag walls which heightened the sides of the trench; shells from the Shuishi battery were whistling overhead and bursting in the neighboring fort of Ehrlungshan; and every few minutes the sharp crack of a rifle, either in our trench or behind the parapet of Sungshushan, showed that the "snipers" were watching one another closely, and were firing at everything that looked like a man's face behind a loophole in a sand-bag wall. Shut in as we were, it was impossible to tell what progress we were making, or how near we were getting to the fort; but six or seven minutes after leaving the gulch, we came out into a deep and rather spacious pit, whose sides had been built up with sand-bags to a height of fifteen or twenty feet, and whose bottom was a chaotic mass of disrupted concrete. "This is where we exploded a mine yesterday," said Captain Ishikawa, "and there" (pointing to a smooth concrete wall on one side of the pit) "is the back of one of the counterscarp casemates. We're now digging a tunnel under it, as you see, and in a day or two we'll lay a mine and blow it up. There have been Russian soldiers in it until recently, but I think they've cleared out. You can't see the fort from here, because we are fifteen or twenty feet below the surface of the glacis; but the moat lies just beyond the casemate whose back wall we have exposed, and in a few minutes I'll show it to you."

I looked around with keen interest, at a scene utterly unlike anything that I had ever before witnessed. The chaotic masses of concrete which seemed to have been disrupted by an earthquake; the high sides of the pit, topped with walls of sand-bags; the shoring of heavy timbers to keep precipices of coarse rubble from tumbling down; and the soldier-laborers, in sand-bag clothing, who were breaking up the débris with pickaxes and carrying it away in baskets—all suggested the idea of a mine, or an excavation for the foundation of a bridge; but, on the other hand, the heavy booming of siege guns, the hurtling shells from the Shuishi battery, and the occasional crack of a rifle close at hand were unmistakable evidences of war.

"Now if you'll come back into the trenches," said Captain Ishikawa, "I'll show you the fort."

Going up out of the pit and turning into a side trench, we took positions with our backs to the southern wall, while a soldier, under the Captain's direction, held up in front of us, on the end of a long bamboo pole, a small condensing mirror, in which we could see with perfect clearness a reduced picture of the moat, the escarp, and the ragged, shell-scarred parapet of the fort. One could not show his head for an instant above the sand-bag wall of the trench without getting a rifle bullet through it, because the Russians were only fifty or sixty feet away; but with the aid of the mirror it was possible to study the outside of the big fort at leisure and in perfect safety. The escarp, or inner wall of the moat, had originally been a high precipice of masonry and concrete; but it had been badly shattered by the ponderous shells from the Japanese how-

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itzers, and at its foot was a talus, twelve or fifteen feet high, of fragmentary débris. The parapet, which seemed to consist of a massive earthen wall, had also been more or less injured by bursting shells, but had been repaired and reinforced with sand-bags so that it was perhaps as good as ever. In two or three places I could see the black muzzles of cannon, mounted *en barbette*, but it was impossible for the Russians to work them at a distance of only fifty or sixty feet from Japanese riflemen and machine guns. So far as one could tell from mere inspection, the fort might be untenanted; but the whip-like crack of a rifle now and then showed that behind the sand-bags which crowned its parapet sharpshooters were intently watching the Japanese lines. The most dangerous thing that one can do at the extreme front is to look through the chinks or loopholes left here and there in the sand-bag walls above the edges of the trenches. So long as you stay below the surface of the ground and content yourself with such reflections of the upper world as you can see in a mirror mounted on a long bamboo pole, you are comparatively safe; but if you ascend one of the flights of sand-bag steps from the bottom of the trench and look through a rifleman's chink, you are in deadly peril. A Russian sharpshooter, only sixty feet away across the moat, may have been watching that very chink through the sights of his rifle for an hour, and the moment that it changes color, as your face rises behind it, he fires. The only general whom the Japanese lost at Port Arthur—Major-General Yamamoto—was killed at a chink in precisely this way by a bullet which struck him directly between the eyes. You may know all this, and you may have been repeatedly warned, and yet when you get to the front the temptation to look through a chink and take the chances is almost overwhelming. I resisted the desire for a while, but after I had seen three or four Japanese soldiers take a peep without fatal consequences, I thought I might venture; and the first thing I saw was the blood-stained corpse of a handsome young Russian soldier lying on the ground, with his face fully exposed, only fifteen or twenty feet away. In order to lessen the risk of looking through chinks, the Japanese put up behind them, in particularly dangerous places, light steel shields, pierced with a narrow slit for the eyes; but I noticed that most of the soldiers used, in preference, the larger and more convenient openings left here and there in the wall of sand-bags.

One of the strangest and gloomiest places to which we were taken in front of Sungshushan was a bomb-proof casemate overlooking the moat. The only entrance to it was a rectangular hole in the southern wall of the front parallel, and as I crawled into it on my hands and knees, it looked to me like a low, dark, and rather extensive cellar or cave. Its ceiling of massive timbers was only three feet above its earthen floor, so that one could barely sit up in it, and all the light that it received came in through the entrance hole and through a narrow, horizontal slit in the opposite wall. The floor was covered with the bodies of sleeping soldiers, and beyond them, on the side next the fort, stood a machine gun and a box of ammunition. Two soldiers were sitting on their heels at the sides of this gun, and were conversing in low tones as they watched the moat through the narrow slit. There was little probability of a sortie at that time of day; but the Japanese never relax their vigilance, and these men were prepared to sweep the moat with a hail of bullets if the Russians should attempt to cross it. The gloomy twilight of the low, subterranean chamber; the sleeping soldiers, who did not wake even when we crawled over their bodies; the machine gun with its muzzle opposite the narrow, rectangular embrasure; and the crouching men in loose sand-bag jackets, watching the moat, would have made a dark but striking picture of war.

About half-past two the enemy's fire gradually increased, and as we left the front, on our way back to General Nakamura's headquarters, shells from two or three of the Russian forts were going over our heads into the Japanese lines, and we began to hear again the detestable banging of shrapnel. When we reached the brown canvas tents at the head of

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the gulch, we were introduced to General Nakamura, a middle-aged, plainly dressed man, whose keen, intelligent face looked like that of a successful lawyer. As luncheon was all ready, we took seats again on the blanket-covered sand-bags, and were presently served with as delicious a meal as we should have been able to get in the Imperial Hotel at Toyko. The tenderloin steak was broiled and seasoned to perfection; the French fried potatoes were as hot, brown, and crisp as if they had just come from the kitchen of the best restaurant in New York; the European bread and butter were everything that could be desired; and for sweets we had pineapples with sugared biscuits, or "cookies," from London. The soldier-waiter then brought to us hot tea in porcelain cups, and the most perfect toast that I have yet eaten in the Far East. This meal was served in a narrow gulch on the barren slope of Sungshushan, only three hundred yards from a Russian fort, in the midst of what seemed to me a furious bombardment. Half a dozen Japanese batteries were in action; the Russians were replying vigorously from Itzushan, Antzushan, Wangtai, and Golden Hill; projectiles of all sorts were flying back and forth across the valley; and just as we got to pineapples a big shell hurtled close overhead and threw up a fountain of dirt and stones only fifty yards away. Then, suddenly, a telephone at the head of the gulch rang three—my own home call. Taking the whole experience together—the Delmonico lunch, the booming of siege guns, the familiar ring of the telephone, the whistling and bursting of shells, the blossoming chrysanthemums in the neighboring trenches, the soldier bringing us slice after slice of hot toast in the gulch, and the artillerymen crouching beside the machine gun in the dark bomb-proof on the edge of the moat—seemed to me the most extraordinary combination that had ever come within the range of my experience.

We stayed in the gulch talking with the Japanese officers until about half-past four o'clock, and then, as we had six miles to ride, we bade them all good-by, and, walking back through the maze of trenches to the village of Shuishi, we mounted our horses and started homeward. The enemy's fire late in the afternoon became rather heavy, but, with the exception of a shell which burst about a hundred yards ahead of us as we emerged from the Shuishi cañon, no projectile fell in our vicinity. Long before we reached the railway it grew dark, and in trying to take a short cut across the valley we lost our way. Then my horse took fright at something, threw me violently in the middle of a plowed field, and galloped off; and as Lieutenant Oata, who went in search of him, did not return, I made my way back to Liukiaton on foot.

The Oil Situation in Kansas

By John J. McLaurin

The Outlook for May 6 contained an article on "The Oil Fields and Pipe Lines of Kansas," in which the author pictured the Standard Oil Company as a public enemy. In response to that article we are asked, on behalf of the Standard Oil Company, to present its view of conditions in Kansas in the columns of The Outlook, and the following article is published, not as a detailed reply to Mr. Barde, but as a statement of the facts which representatives of the Standard Oil Company believe to be fair and unprejudiced.—THE EDITORS.

TO follow up the whole list of misstatements regarding the Standard Oil Company in Kansas would be a hopeless task. Although the Standard is not in special need of sympathy or defense, the public needs correct information, hence this article from the vantage-ground of personal knowledge and independent observation, backed by a practical acquaintance with petroleum developments and conditions that dates back to 1862 and covers every field on the continent. Speaking generally, the allegations are: Entering

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the State under false colors, plotting with railroads to discriminate against local shippers of oil, unfairly boycotting certain grades of crude, arbitrarily changing prices of the product, strangling competition, and corrupting legislators, with the customary references to monopoly and illegal combination.

Dr. C. W. Brown's published description of "oil springs" in Miami County first directed attention in 1855 to petroleum in Kansas. He drilled the first well in 1860, near the "springs," finding fair rock, some oil, and gas. This was all until wells around Neodesha in 1889 helped confirm the theory of a prospective field. W. M. Mills found regular oil sand and plugged two wells in 1902. John H. Galey, a veteran operator, went from Pittsburg to investigate, leased sixty thousand acres for his firm, and located numerous wells quite far apart. The first at Neodesha, the second at Thayer, fourteen miles northeast, the third at Humboldt, twenty-five miles farther northeast, and a chain of others southwest of Neodesha, indicated spotted territory worth testing fully. In all, Guffey & Galey tied up a million acres of land, and put down one hundred and forty wells, averaging eight hundred feet deep, and half of them dry. Always foremost independents and pioneers, at no time or place did they, singly or together, represent the Standard in any manner. Lack of transportation deciding them to retire from the State, in 1895 they sold at a loss to the Forest Oil Company—a producing branch of the Standard, which thus entered Kansas openly and aboveboard.

The Forest Oil Company drilled scores of wells from Humboldt to the southern boundary of Chautauqua County, for years having the district almost exclusively to itself. I. N. Knapp struck oil in 1900 east of Chanute, where the Forest Oil Company had previously developed gas. The Forest erected a gas plant and sold the outfit to the city, which demanded an agreement not to drill more wells within a radius of three miles. This hold-up at Chanute, hotbed of anti-Standard sentiment and headquarters of stock-jobbers, paved the way for a franchise to the Kansas-Indian Territory Oil and Gas Company "to pipe the town for the purpose of supplying manufacturers with gas"—quoting from the Company's 1905 prospectus—"and as soon as we can pipe gas to the people who use same, the city stands ready to turn over to us all present customers." Shutting out the Forest Oil Company, which originated the industry, and granting such favors to a company among whose "officers and directors" is the Governor of the State, would seem to manifest in Kansas a peculiar idea of the "square deal."

Organized to carry on the business in the Kansas-Territories region, the Prairie Oil and Gas Company superseded the Forest Oil Company on January 1, 1901. W. J. Giser, who had operated a group of wells at Peru, continued to drill, and widened the prolific pool. Oil men flocked to the scene and developments moved briskly, the production reaching 5,600,000 barrels last year—five times the total in 1903. Heedless of the low grade of much of the oil and the utter inadequacy of facilities to handle the unexpected freshet, operators persisted in sinking wells, and stock companies multiplied by hundreds. The pipe lines owned by the Prairie Oil and Gas Company to the Neodesha refinery, taxed to the utmost night and day, could not transport the entire output. The refinery had been built in 1897 to utilize the crude from the Forest's wells, not as "an inducement for others to assist in developing the field." The fact that the Prairie Oil and Gas Company "permitted the bulk of its leases to lapse," although renewable at an annual rental of 25 cents per acre, refutes effectually the charge of "strenuously seeking to control the oil lands and monopolize the oil resources of Kansas."

No expense was spared to provide pipe lines and tankage for the swelling production. The Prairie Company gave every quarter the promptest attention possible, rushing up tanks and buying all the oil it could market or store to relieve the congestion. Laying miles of pipe and constructing two or three steel tanks a week, each holding forty to fifty thousand barrels, employed an army of busy workmen. The supply greatly ex-

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ceeded the demand for the product, entailing a heavy outlay to hold the surplus, now over seven million barrels, and accumulating steadily. This surplus the Company bought, piped, tanked, and must carry for months, perhaps years. All sections and all operators received fair treatment in the endeavor to apportion runs and purchases equitably, regardless of local or personal attitude towards the Standard. Building a first-class refinery at Kansas City enlarged the market for Kansas oil, in which the trunk pipe line to Whiting, Indiana, will soon be another important relief.

Coming from an unfriendly critic, whom none will accuse of partiality to the Standard, Miss Ida M. Tarbell's voluntary tribute, in her letter to the producers' mass-meeting at Independence on March 19, notably attests the nature and efficiency of the efforts to furnish adequate and satisfactory service. Writing from Topeka, during a visit widely heralded to be for the express purpose of seeing for herself the oil situation in Kansas, she said: "The time you spend in talking at Independence the Standard spends in putting up one or more fifty-thousand-barrel tanks and laying ready for use ten or twenty miles of pipe line, and refining tens of thousands of barrels of oil. . . . Study the oil problem as the Standard Oil Company studies it. . . . Play the game as well as the Standard Oil Company plays it, and stop sizzling, is my advice." Over $10,000,000 spent within its borders to care for the product and give the entire field an outlet for its oil, and millions more to link the new region with the outside world and introduce its staple everywhere, tell in brief what the Standard has done in and for Kansas, Oklahoma, and Indian Territory.

With any "advance in freight rates on crude oil" the Standard had no more to do than the loudest objector in Kansas. The Prairie pipes its crude to Neodesha and Kansas City to be refined, therefore the freight rate in no wise concerns it. In reality no crude is shipped by rail, operators selling to the Prairie Company—the only transporter by pipe lines—at prices regulated by the general market, and not "fixed arbitrarily to harass the Kansas producers" or anybody else.

Chanute producers urged the Prairie management to erect a tank at Neodesha and buy their crude. The "differential of twenty cents a barrel" was adopted by mutual consent, amicably and minus anything "arbitrary," to cover pipage and the inferior grade of the oil. Establishing the gravity scale, as in the older fields, terminated this arrangement last October.

Kansas oil below thirty degrees is a fuel and cannot be refined profitably. The refineries having rejected this oil, the Prairie pipe lines were obliged to cease taking it from the wells. In a few cases "pipe-line connections were torn out," for the reason that the wells yielded unmerchantable oil. Not their ownership, but the rating of their output, determined the wells disconnected. Pipes and fittings could be used to run salable oil, which the higher gravity of the Territories field induces the Company to store at Ramona. Several tanks were removed from Caney for greater convenience, and any inference of injustice to Kansas in the matter is utterly gratuitous. The portion of the "Indian Territory-Oklahoma field controlled by the Standard" comprises one lease, the same in area as any applicant may obtain by complying with the rules of the Interior Department. In the mammoth "Osage Lease," acquired by Mr. Foster years ago, the Standard has no interest whatever.

Were fluctuation in prices of petroleum confined to Kansas, producers would have good reason to complain. The records show that all States have been treated exactly alike, completely disproving the charge of unfair discrimination. Invariably based upon trade conditions and quality of oil, changes occurred simultaneously in the different States and applied to crude and refined in proper ratio. The demand abroad, as reflected by the price of refined for export, largely governs the value of crude. Absorbing forty-six per cent. in crude equivalent of illuminating grades of American petroleum, the foreign market virtually dominates prices. The Standard holds this market only by unceasing vigilance and effective organization, and by maintaining

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a uniform quality of products. Enormous obstacles have to be overcome to maintain American supremacy against the fierce competition of 100,000,000 barrels annual production in Europe and Asia. Excessive production in 1904 reversed the bullish situation of 1903, tumbling prices and increasing stocks. Trans-Mississippi States added 21,000,000 barrels to the output, deranging values and crippling a host of producers. The sixteen changes in refined quotations last year brought corresponding changes in crude, on the same dates and in all sections producing oil adapted to refining. There was no favoritism, no discrimination, no exception for or against Kansas in the inevitable, universal decline in prices.

If reducing to the minimum the cost of handling, manufacturing, and marketing a prime commodity means "strangling competition," this is the very essence of competition, and the public is the gainer.

Attempting to shift responsibility, every weakling in the oil business poses as the victim of "competition" and "discrimination," terms often distorted and misunderstood. The competition of this corporation in and out of Kansas is by means of improved processes, increased facilities, and better results at every stage of the passage of petroleum from the well to the lamp and furnace. Furnishing the best products at lowest prices necessarily hurts feeble competitors.

Falling prices and a flood of oil far beyond the capacity of the pipe line to run led a "handful of producers in the Third District" to imagine that they had a real grievance against railroads in general and the Standard in particular. Stock promoters, whose promises of fat dividends shrinking values negatived, and disappointed investors in worthless shares, fomented the discontent. Fresh tales of woe, to stir up bitterness and inflame passion, supplemented the old familiar slurs and slanders, revived and magnified for Kansas consumption. Experienced operators, understanding cause and effect, took little or no part in the unwarranted crusade to "put the Standard out of business."

Eager to try its 'prentice hand in regulating the new industry, about which the average member knew absolutely nothing, the Legislature "in one week enacted laws long agitation elsewhere had failed to secure." These measures appropriated $400,000 for a State refinery, scheduled maximum rates for transporting oil, placed pipe lines as common carriers under control of the Railway Commissioners, and imposed various restrictions to insure uniform prices in sales of commodities at different points. Some of this hasty legislation is quite certain to be repealed next session, when the sober second thought supplants ill-advised frenzy.

Each must judge how far the State is justified in expending a large sum to establish and conduct, "by convict labor, as a branch penitentiary," an enterprise to compete with individuals or corporations employing honest labor at fair wages. Intelligent citizens will find food for reflection in what such interference by the State involves. The experiment may prove an instructive object-lesson in political economy. If the principle be wise and legitimate, why not extend it indefinitely and operate all industries as branch penitentiaries?

The chief shipper of petroleum products, the Standard does not object to a low railroad rate for freighting its wares to Kansas patrons, yet the justice of singling out and arbitrarily fixing the highest compensation that railroads may receive for one kind of service may be questioned. This brand of alleged anti-discrimination is the rankest discrimination the assembled wisdom at Topeka could have devised.

Declaring all pipe lines common carriers, with rates subject to the caprice of three Railway Commissioners, will merely prevent new lines from entering the State. The Prairie line bought its own right of way, not possessing the right of eminent domain vested in common carriers, and it has run no oil save what the Company purchased or produced. Provisions in the act to regulate sales of commodities cap the climax of legislative absurdity. The Legislature's anti-corporation zeal simply outran its discretion. The froth has blown off, the oil millennium has not been ushered in, and Kansans are learning that oppressing one essential

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branch of any industry means injury to the whole. The Standard will obey the law strictly, content to let the enactments of 1905 work out their logical conclusion.

The Standard neither "sent its most trusted lobbyists and attorneys to Topeka" nor one dollar "to block adverse legislation." The Prairie manager asked to be heard by the committee having the bill relating to oil, and was curtly refused. The story of "the Standard lobby" was invented and circulated to manufacture and intensify hostile clamor. The Producers' Committee printed in a number of papers the deliberate fiction of "Two Bags of Money by Express," to "create the impression"—using a spokesman's language—"that, if the Legislature failed to do its duty, the Standard had opened its money-bags." By such methods the Kansas Legislature, State officials holding stock in oil companies, and a so-called "Producers' Committee" banded in "an attempt," as Governor Hoch expressed it, "to compel the Standard Oil Company to be decent"!

Persons thinking of investing in new refineries will, of course, decide for themselves. "Get into a world market" sounds well and reads nicely on paper; carrying out the project is a different thing. Without its economical concentration of all branches of the petroleum industry the Standard could not retain the "world market" a month. Every attempt to divide its trade abroad and decry it at home is at the expense of the American producer. Even as it is, an English navigation company now freights Texas crude across the seas and brings back cargoes of naphtha and benzine to the United States distilled from oil produced in India and Borneo. This competition, in addition to the immense supply of Texas crude at half the price paid in Kansas, "a pipe line to the Gulf" would encounter. Experience teaches thoroughly, and there are many short roads to bankruptcy.

The Standard has not "withdrawn from Kansas practically," nor any other way. Its development of the field and expenditure to distribute the product set Kansas in the petroleum column, where the Standard will do its share to keep it to the end.

Municipal Ownership of Street Railways in Glasgow

By Robert Donald

Editor of the London "Chronicle"

GLASGOW, the commercial metropolis of Scotland, was the first city to adopt municipal ownership of street railways on a large scale and to carry it to a logical conclusion by operating as well as owning its roads. The success of this pioneer enterprise has stimulated progress all over the world. It is not surprising that Chicago should seek the advice of Mr. Dalrymple, the manager of the Glasgow Tramways, when about to make the first experiment in the municipal ownership of street railways in America. The chief officers of the Glasgow Tramways have been frequently called in to advise other municipalities, and have been tempted away to occupy other positions. When Mr. Yerkes wanted a man to direct his vast railroad enterprises in London—electric suburban roads and deep-level subways—to remodel an old system and inaugurate a new one, he found him in Mr. John Young, the organizer and first manager of the Glasgow Tramways. No better testimonial to the efficiency of municipal ownership could be found than this appointment. Glasgow has been a training-ground for street railway administrators, as its former officers are managing tramway systems in Leeds, Madrid, and other cities.

The ownership of tramways in Glasgow was the necessary outcome of the city's municipal policy. The city has always held a leading position for the extent of its municipal institutions as well as for efficiency of management.

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From the romantic Lake Katrine in the Trossachs, associated with memories of Scott's masterpieces, the city draws its municipal water supply. Since 1869 it has owned its gas-works, and lowered the price until now it is fifty-three cents per thousand cubic feet. Its municipal elecricity is also supplied at the extremely low rate of five and one-half cents per kilowatt hour. Private slaughter-houses were abolished in the middle of the last century, and three municipal establishments serve the city. All the markets are municipal possessions. Forty years ago the center of Glasgow was congested and overcrowded. Dens of rookeries were packed round narrow courts. They were nurseries of crime, breeding-grounds of disease. A radical remedy was adopted. Nearly a hundred acres of slumland, with a population of 51,000, were bought by the city, which carried out a bold reconstruction and rehousing scheme. Over $12,000,000 has been expended in the improvement scheme. The municipality has built thirty new streets, widened as many more, and provided new tenements and lodging-houses for the displaced population. It burdened itself with a heavy annual charge to start with in support of the improvement; but the scheme, instead of now being a burden, has become a financial as well as a social benefit to the community. It was the persistency of Glasgow that broke down the private telephone monopoly in Great Britain, encouraged other municipalities to establish their own system, and has now led to the complete nationalization of the whole service.

Among the other municipal possessions of Glasgow may be mentioned a series of hospitals, homes for inebriates, art galleries, museums, numerous parks, libraries, baths, winter gardens, botanic gardens, public schools, art schools, technical institutes, free concerts, pleasure grounds, facilities for golf and other games, gymnasia and playgrounds for children, etc. Its solicitude for the poor has induced it to establish a family home for children of widows and widowers, and depots for the supply of sterilized milk to poor children. It was due to civic enterprise that the Clyde was converted into a navigable river and Glasgow made one of the leading ports in the world.

Connected with Glasgow's greater municipal organizations are many subsidiary developments of special interest. The Cleansing Department, for instance, which deals with the city refuse, has developed large estates, maintains farms, and works stone quarries, from which the municipality obtains part of its supply for street paving. The Water Department supplies hydraulic power. In fact, Glasgow municipality looks after the welfare of its citizens on a most comprehensive scale, by providing them with all common services of public utility—with one exception. Having done so much to promote the health and welfare of the community, it has not considered it necessary to make provision for the disposal of the dead, by municipalizing the cemeteries. All its numerous services, institutions, works, municipal industries, are carried on, not for the purpose of accumulating large profits to be transferred to accounts for the relief of local taxation, but on the principle of supplying the cheapest and best services, so as to spread the benefits over the greatest number of the citizens. The dividends which the city reaps are in the form of civic betterment, lower death rate, and improvement in social conditions. Its progress in civic affairs has never been tarnished by the taint of politics. The ward "boss" is unknown. Citizens' committees take his place. Civic patriotism runs strong, and the differences among the members of the City Council are not so much on the principles of progress as on the pace at which they should go forward.

Bearing in mind the history of Glasgow, its experience in municipal administration, it was the most natural thing in the world that, given the opportunity, it should municipalize its tramways; and it would have been going back on its record if it had not made the system a success. Like most British cities outside London, Glasgow had always municipal ownership of its tramways. Several years after tramways were introduced into American cities, experimental lines were tried in England. Parliament scented the nucleus of a new monopoly.

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Cities feared that they would lose control of their streets; so a law was passed, though not until 1871, laying down the principles of municipal ownership, with short franchises—an undesirable condition, as time showed. The cities could build the roads and grant franchises to companies for twenty-one years, or could leave the companies the right to build, with or without conditions. In either case, the tenure of the private corporations expired automatically after the lapse of twenty-one years from the opening of the track. At that time the House of Commons foresaw the possibility of municipal operation, but was fearful of the result, and passed a Standing Order to prevent it. The city which owned the roads was under no obligation to buy the operating company's rolling stock, depots, etc., but the city which did not begin with municipal ownership was called upon to buy the company's undertaking at its "then value;" that is, after twenty-one years' use, making allowance for depreciation but none for compensation in respect of good will and future profits. Both methods undoubtedly retarded progress. When the franchise period was drawing to a close, there was no desire for improvement, no attempt to introduce electric traction; roads were not extended; rolling stock was allowed to become dilapidated as well as obsolete.

The legislative barrier to prevent municipal operation was not disposed of until 1896. Several towns, notably Huddersfield and Plymouth, had before that date operated lines only on sufferance, because no company had made a reasonable offer. Glasgow discovered that, in taking over the powers which established the company, it had also taken the right to work the tramways, so that it was outside the scope of the Parliamentary prohibition.

It had given a company the franchise for twenty-three years—two years beyond the minimum period—on the following conditions:

1. The company paid all promoting expenses and interest on the money which the city borrowed in making the roads.
2. It paid into a redemption fund three per cent. on the capital expenditure.
3. It paid four per cent. on the cost of construction to form a fund for renewals carried out by itself under supervision of the municipality.
4. It paid $750 per mile for the use of the streets.

These were stringent conditions, but they did not prevent the tramway company from paying fair dividends, and they enabled the city to pay back the whole of the capital expenditure when the franchise expired, and to receive in the form of mileage dues $378,120.

The franchise expired in June, 1894. The situation was similar to the position in Chicago. War was declared between the company interests and the municipality. Municipal elections were fought on the future of the tramways. A spontaneous outburst of civic enthusiasm led to a citizens' victory; municipal ownership was adopted. Defeated in the election field, the company interests then declined to sell their worn-out cars, their old horses, and their depots at a reasonable price. The city's reply was to build new depots, buy new cars, engage and train a new staff. Without the use of the track it could not adopt electricity, but had to begin with horse traction. There was a dramatic change. At midnight the company's cars disappeared from the streets; a few hours later the municipal cars were running. The success was immediate and has been permanent.

It will be interesting to state the effect of municipal ownership, and to explain the policy which guided the City Council. The company—as all private enterprise must do—kept mainly in view immediate profits. Like most British companies, it pursued a narrow policy. The keynote of the municipal system was service, giving the best possible to the citizens. The municipality operated the roads in the interest of all. It greatly lowered the fares, banished all advertisements from the cars, made the names of the routes and destinations conspicuous, opened up new routes and linked up new districts. It also considered its employees. Without a contented staff there cannot be a perfect service. So the drivers and conductors were dressed in new uniforms, their wages were increased,

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their hours reduced. The citizens had the feeling of personal possession when they patronized the cars, which display the city's arms and its motto—"Let Glasgow Flourish." Civic patriotism asserted itself later on, when the displaced franchise-holders started a competing service of omnibuses, which failed to get support and soon disappeared.

The City Corporation had no sooner completed its horse-car service than it set about investigating electric traction. It sent deputations to America and to Continental Europe. To the disappointment of many, it adopted the overhead instead of the underground trolley.

In reconstructing its system, the City Corporation adopted the system carried out in other departments. It dispensed with contractors as much as possible. It built the new depots and the electricity-generating station, laid down the extensions, and, after the first set of cars, built all others in the department's workshops. The Glasgow tramways extend beyond the city boundaries by agreement with suburban municipalities, and serve a population of a million. Since the tramways were municipalized, the roads have increased from sixty-four to one hundred and fifty miles. This extent of road is small in comparison with the Chicago street railways, or of the systems in less populous American cities. The area of Glasgow is small—12,688 acres—for a city of its population, 790,000. Many streets are too narrow for tramways. Suburban districts still maintain a lingering but dying prejudice against the democratic street-car. Glasgow is a busy center for a British city, but its bustle cannot be compared with the feverish activity of Chicago. There is far greater mobility among the people in American than in British cities.

There are interesting differences in the methods of operating the car service. There are no transfers in Glasgow, as in American and Continental cities. The city is divided into routes, and fares are regulated according to distance. The policy is to carry the greatest possible number of people at the lowest possible rate, and to make every route independent and self-supporting, except in the case of new roads which are being developed. British people have not yet acquired the traveling habit to the same extent as Americans. A larger number of people want to travel a mile than to go five miles; but, unless the fares were low for short distances, British people would not take the cars.

The fares in Glasgow are one cent for a stage of a little over half a mile, and over 30 per cent. of the passengers travel this short distance, and bring in nearly 17 per cent. of the receipts. For an average of two and a third miles the fares are two cents, and close on 61 per cent. of the passengers travel this distance and contribute 66⅔ per cent. of the receipts, so that 91 per cent. of the total number carried pay two-cent or one-cent fares. Only 6.31 per cent. travel for three cents, bringing 10.38 per cent. of the receipts; 1.62 pay four cents, and bring 3.54 per cent. of the receipts. Less than one per cent. of the 189,000,000 passengers last year paid five cents or more. It is obvious that the long-distance passengers contribute an undue share of the profits, while in American cities the policy is to overcharge the short-distance traveler.

Glasgow tramways differ in other respects from the American cars. The conductor, instead of ringing up the fare, gives passengers tickets which they punch, and the discs punched out of the tickets are the means of checking the receipts. Then the cars are double-deckers. Leaving out of account overcrowding, which is not permitted in Glasgow, the double-decker will carry nearly double the number of passengers of the ordinary American car. Stoppages are more frequent, however, and fares are more difficult to collect. There are regular stopping-places, about the width of a block apart, for taking up and setting down passengers.

The Glasgow tramways are managed by a Committee of the City Corporation, which holds frequent meetings and reports regularly to the City Council. It consists of twenty-eight members, who appoint sub-committees for supervising different departments. It obtains the sanction of the Council for its actions. The Council might be regarded as the legislative authority, and the Committee as the executive.

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From a financial point of view the Glasgow undertaking has been remarkably successful. A cautious policy has been adopted. As I have pointed out, the original capital for constructing the roads was paid off when the municipality obtained possession. More capital was borrowed, on the credit of the city, to start the horse traction system, and the city has been continually borrowing to meet additional capital expenditure, until the capital now stands at over $12,000,000. The Council pays a little over three per cent. interest on the capital, which is borrowed for a period of thirty years. It has adopted the policy of practically renewing the permanent way out of revenue, depreciating heavily, and building up revenues in order to keep down capital expenditure. Unlike other British cities, Glasgow does not use its surplus profits for the relief of local taxation. It pays a mileage rate on the same basis as the old company did into what is known as the Common Good Fund of the City—a general fund which can be applied to any purpose for increasing the amenities of the city and the welfare of the people. This mileage rate amounts to $125,000 a year. The result of pursuing this cautious policy as to capital expenditure, and carrying out repairs and renewals from revenue, was that, by the time the whole system was converted to electric traction, the whole capital incurred four or five years previously for equipping the horse system had been entirely extinguished.

Last year's accounts indicate the healthy financial condition of the tramways. The total receipts, for instance, amounted to £724,857 ($3,624,255), the operating expenses to £356,820 ($1,684,100)—49 per cent. of the revenue. The net receipts showed a gross return on the capital outlay of 17.46 per cent. The interest and franchise charges to other municipalities amounted to £64,376 ($321,880). The payment into a sinking fund for redemption of capital at the rate of two per cent. was £45,553 ($227,765). There still remained the huge surplus of £258,102 ($1,290,510), which was allocated to depreciation and reserve fund, and the payment of $125,000 in mileage dues to the Common Good Fund. The ordinary depreciation on equipment, power stations, cars, etc., amounted to $393,095. There was a special depreciation for cables, overhead wires, buildings, etc., of $310,000. There was carried to a general reserve fund $93,950, and to a permanent way renewal fund $300,135. This fund now stands at $965,025. The tramways undertaking makes the same contribution to local taxation as if it were under private enterprise. The amount which it paid in taxes in the last financial year was $174,580. The accounts of the department are examined and audited by independent professional accountants. The accounts are published with elaborate detail, showing the smallest item of expenditure worked out to percentages and comparisons with previous years.

The Tramway Department, as I have indicated, generates its own electric power, the total cost of which is less than one cent per kilowatt hour.

The Tramways Committee delegates considerable power to its general manager, who is responsible for the staff who form part of the permanent civil service in the city. Politics does not influence appointments, and promotion is by merit.

In conclusion, I would like to point out that the Glasgow tramways system has not by any means reached its high-water mark of efficiency. With its cautious financial policy, the Tramways Department could in a few years accumulate reserves which would enable it to introduce the underground trolley without adding greatly to its capital, and further swell its earning powers. With liberal depreciation and reserve funds to meet renewals and obsolescence, with a redemption fund which liquidates the original capital of the undertaking in thirty years, which is at the same time maintained in an efficient condition out of revenue, the City Corporation is more than doing its duty to the next generation. Lower fares for long distances should be easily possible in the near future, and there is a prospect that the average fare will come down to one cent. A universal one-cent fare irrespective of distance could then be adopted.

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The Nation's Demand upon American Young Men

By the Right Rev. Charles H. Brent, D.D.
Bishop of the Philippine Islands

BECAUSE democracy aims at so high a standard and is so essentially a spiritual principle, it has been charged against it that it "lays too great a strain on human nature." Such a complaint forms part of the credentials which all idealism is proud to carry, the Christian religion first and foremost. And democracy is the principle of Christian brotherhood applied to government, whether in a constitutional monarchy like that of England or in a republican system of rule like our own.

Probably no American would admit that our ideal of democracy is visionary or that we ought to strike some compromise that would be more in tune with the limitations and defects of average human nature; but, owing to the inertness and apathy, from whatsoever cause, of at any rate a large minority of citizens, methods contradictory and subversive of democracy have been allowed to creep into our system of government and abide there unmolested. Machine politics and "bossism" are usurping the field that should be controlled by forces of less selfish and more moral character, and the highest interests of the many are daily being sacrificed to the cupidity and lust for power of the few.

It is for the coming generation, the youth of to-day who are clothed with unprecedented privilege, to cure some of the excesses of liberty which mar our civilization. Let them stoop their shoulders to the burden in the prime of their young manhood and strike across the problems of the Nation the fire of their strength. The first lesson that a young man should learn in the principles of government is that National problems and public questions are his own personal concern and responsibility, and that he will have to answer for his conduct toward them as exactly as for his individual moral behavior. Such a lesson well learned issues in something more than an occasional jeremiad from the sheltered cloisters of cultured ease, or the acid shriek of negative criticism. It burns itself into the flesh and blood, the nerves and muscle, until the flame of patriotism is kindled in the soul and a citizen worthy the name moves out into the Nation's need equipped to wrestle with its problems and overthrow its enemies. Of course this will mean self-sacrifice always, and oftentimes as complete and bold an adventure of faith as signalized the departure of Abraham from Ur, the enterprise of Cavour, the revolt of Washington. The spirit of adventure, with its bosom stored with those rich compensations which men who have surrendered to it for some worthy end know full well, seizes the life and swings it up to a new level of courage, to a sphere where the atmosphere is rare and the power of spiritual vision quick, to a realm of freedom where whatever gifts one possesses have their fullest exercise. American life has a faculty for adventure. Its main distraction is found in the amazing risks we run to secure wealth by a *coup de main*. This faculty stands in need of redemption by being shot into a new channel whose lining is unselfishness and a nation's good. We are the sons of adventurers, and our lives stand so close to our pioneer fathers that we feel their heated breath upon us as they conquer the forests and enslave the rivers. None of us is true to his heritage who is not taking some considerable risk for the common weal. Young life cannot reach normal development if it is not somewhere in the heat of a battle for others. It must be occupied on at least one common problem if it is to win its citizenship.

To-day the undeveloped or half-developed West is calling to the privileged youth to come to its aid. It is easy to succumb to the allurements of the older

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civilization and choose bondage with ease under the shadow of settled conditions rather than strenuous liberty in unbeaten tracks. I am thinking now chiefly of those many young men of greater or lesser wealth upon whom first of all the demand of the Nation for a large measure of self-sacrifice falls. But how fine it is when a richly-endowed nature, after scrutinizing the field, picks out as its sphere of service the center of some grave perplexity, the hardest spot, perhaps, on the ramparts! It is doubly fine, for it both administers succor where succor is needed, and weaves new stuff into American manhood.

In our protest against militarism we must not lose sight of a still graver peril—"Corinthianism," or the moral enervation and decadence that is born of the soft uses of prosperity. However bad militarism may be, history teaches us that the military nation may live and flourish in health and manners, but the end of the self-indulgent nation is inevitably corruption and death. I say this not to defend militarism, but to indicate wherein the greater danger lies to-day, and to make a plea for that hardihood which enables a man sometimes to flip his fingers in the face of a risk. Though I would add that if we deprecate war and its concomitants merely because it disturbs our ease and offends our æsthetic sense, we confess ourselves in need at least of the discipline and hardship of military life. A few days ago, in England, a lady spoke to me of an American book she had been reading which pictured school life. The hero was forbidden by his mother to play football. "Why," said my friend, "if an English boy were forbidden by his mother to play football, he wouldn't own her!" It was strong language to use, but the point underlying the exaggeration was that true boyhood requires peril for its development. And no one's life is secure unless it is dropped daily between a hope and a fear, a possibility and a risk. Years ago, when I was a student, two of my comrades were drowned while trying to sail a boat across a dangerous piece of water in a storm. The instinctive ejaculation from most lips was, "Foolhardiness!" until one of our professors said, "Courageous! It is readiness to dare a hard thing that makes heroes," or words to that effect.

But, to return to our original thought, the young men of to-day, both for their own and the Nation's good, must be stirred to adventure. If they will but listen to the just claims of the country, they will find inspiration and opportunity. A lawyer in a dreary Western town will have a dull time of it merely as a lawyer; but if he embraces and adheres to the ideals of Lincoln, the briefless barrister, if he studies his townspeople through the glasses of sympathy, if he fastens himself on some one municipal or State problem, he may never ride in an automobile or dazzle the habitués of a New York social club, but his name will be worn in the hearts of his fellows, and the Nation will be the richer because he lived. A physician going to Porto Rico or the Philippines merely to make a fortune through the instrumentality of his profession would be a man to be avoided by natives and foreigners. But if he were to elect to go because of the depth of native need, the wide scope for research in unexplored diseases, the consciousness of the country's responsibility to the inhabitants of our island possessions, even though he were in the end to succumb to tropical conditions, his adventure would be nearer noble than imprudent, a success rather than a failure.

In this attempt to emphasize a single phase of life I do not wish to seem to ignore other aspects at least as important, as, for example, the glory of abiding in the conditions into which a man has been born, the quelling of the spirit of adventure far afield because conscience requires it, the plunging into the old, time-worn, humdrum tasks of the older civilization with its painful and seemingly insoluble problems. Both in these latter as well as in our more recent and novel responsibilities, the demand the country is making upon young men is as great as when the bugle sounds reveillé in the early dawn to summon the army to order of the day. And I believe there will be a response worthy alike of our ideals and of our manhood.

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Heberlein and the Union

By Robert Haven Schauffler

THE illness of Heberlein's wife had induced that worthy 'cellist to give up his place in the Chicago Orchestra to fill a sudden vacancy in a New York organization. The doctor had insisted on a change of climate, and the prescription had succeeded so well that Heberlein was able to begin the new season in his old haunts.

In the dim spaces behind the concert stage of the Auditorium became audible the first tentative blast of the tuba, the first quack of the French horn, the imperfect fifth of tuning-strings—heralds of the first rehearsal.

By twos and threes, pipe-dottels and cherished cigarette-stubs found their way to the heap in the alley outside the stage door. With the tempered reluctance of school-boys the musicians entered the place eloquent to them of their austerest and of their happiest hours.

Above the babel of greeting and reminiscence a sudden shout was heard.

"You Heb—old Heberlein's back!"

Instantly the prodigal son of the orchestra was surrounded by a throng of eager and cordial questioners.

"What brought you back?"

"Going to play in your old place again?"

"Liked you New York?"

"*Du Allmächtiger!*" cried Heberlein. "Have I the tongues of men and of angels?"

"At any rate, old boy," called an American second violinist, "you've become better acquainted with your stepmother tongue."

"*Ja*, it is all I brought back from that unholy place," he answered—"the English language. Our compatriots in New York have turned from good Germans into bad Americans. Thank the dear Heaven that my wife has got so well again that I can return to my brothers!"

"Speech! speech!" called the American.

The cry was taken up.

"There gifes feefteen minutes before rehearsal," announced the old kettle-drummer; "proceed, mein Alter."

Shyly protesting, the plump 'cellist was hoisted upon a couple of double-bass boxes and exhorted to hold forth.

"Well," he began, seeing no escape, "I went to the first rehearsal. No one had for me one word or look. When I took my seat, I said to my partner at the same stand, 'How do you? My name is Fritz Heberlein,' and held out my hand. I tell you that man looked at me all over with an eye like a hard-boiled egg.

"'You don't say!' It was all that he uttered. He took no notice of my hand, but turned to his neighbor and laughed very hard. I was not angry at my partner, but I was sorry that he was not a gentleman.

"Presently the Herr Concertmeister entered. Of course I stood up and made him my bow. He smiled at me and bowed in return, but there arose rough cries from all parts of the orchestra:

"'Sit down, Dutchy!'

"'Who bow you to?'

"'That chap's no better than us.'

"Some 'cellist behind me pulled me by the coat-tails down. Alas! I sprang again immediately up. A tack had been placed upon my chair.'"

A loud murmur of indignation ran through the crowd.

"But listen," said Heberlein, "to yet worse matters. Then came Herr Ludwig, the conductor. You all have heard what for a good musician is he—what for a courteous gentleman. Well, not one except myself arose to greet him, but a scattered groaning was heard from here and there, and some one snored into a trombone.

"Very friendly he came straight to me and shook hands, saying in German that he was delighted to welcome me and hoped I would be content. But I could feel his hand tremble a little, and as he rapped his baton he looked very pale. It was the 'Oberon' overture. Now, can you believe, at every soft place some one would get behind his instrument and

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make a noise like to a cock or dog or other beast. Behind me there occurred a fight of cats. Then some one tapped me on the shoulder, declaring it was a Thomas concert. When I asked him if he feared not the conductor, he roared aloud as if I had made a joke. 'Why,' he said, "Ludy" (he called that great conductor Ludy!) 'is much more afraid of us than we are of him. I have a big oil painting of him cutting up rough with us' (those are the words he used). 'Why, we would strike in a minute!'

"'By the way,' he added, 'are you a member of the union?'

"Ludwig grew whiter and whiter, and I could see that it was not from fear but passion; but he never said a word. The faking in the back of the orchestra was fearful; but Ludwig did not dare to make the men play a passage one by one. They would have struck. I tell you that in certain passages my hairs pointed straight to the *lieber Himmel.*"

"*Schweinerei!*" growled the kettle-drummer.

"We were playing," continued Heberlein, "a Beethoven scherzo—the divine one in the Seventh Symphony. All at once my stand-partner stopped, hung his bow on his stand under Ludwig's very eyes, pulled out his watch, and then went on playing. Three minutes later, in the midst of that ravishing part for the horns, he sprang to his feet and hastened toward the door, shouting, 'All over!'

"The rest followed.

"'*Meine Herren*'—the conductor's voice sounded imploringly—'I beg of you, only finish the trio!'

"'Come off the perch!' cried a second violinist; 'don't you know how long the union rehearsal is?'

"That was the first day, and it grew ever more horrible. Most of the musicians have become ashamed of the Fatherland. They want to be natives; so it has come about that they have lost the warm heart of Germany without gaining the honor, the nobility of America. They are nothings.

"But," here the speaker spread his hands wide in a deprecating gesture, "it is not all their fault. The system is bad. They play not as we do, under a contract to give all their time to the orchestra. They are paid so little that most of them have jobs in a theater. This they call their 'business,' and they must often hasten from a symphony concert to play all night at a dance or to strain their lips on the streets in a brass band. You know how well one can play after that."

Heberlein ceased, but there arose instant cries of "Weiter!" "Go on!"

"That union," he resumed, "is a fearful thing. There are ten poor musicians in New York to every good one. So the bandman and the music-hall fiddler have control, and make rules for the great conductors. The idea that all men are equal has finished the business. What think you when a second violinist can talk as I told you to Conductor Ludwig? *Gott sei Lob und Dank* that we have here no such foolishness. We are brothers in the service of Art, and over us is a baton of iron."

The appearance of America's musical Columbus alone kept latent three cheers for the prodigal, and three times three for the Thomas Orchestra. But after the rehearsal Heberlein was borne away in glory to the "Bismarck," there to feast on *Wiener Schnitzel* from a fatted calf.

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Charles Dudley Warner's Works[1]

THE publication of the complete works of Mr. Charles Dudley Warner in a uniform edition is a boon to American readers, for until the appearance of this very handsome set of books it has been impossible to put the work of this charming writer on the shelf in a library with any uniformity. It is five years since Mr. Warner laid aside his pen, but in that brief time many new interests have interposed between readers and the written record of his occupations, his humor, his view of life, and his characterization of society. It is an age when men of the quiet spirit, writers whose charm lies in their sanity, poise, and harmony of thought and style, are likely to be overlooked if not forgotten. Mr. Warner attached his friends to him by so many ties that the flight of time only brings into clearer relief the dignity of his life, the charm of his personality, and the interest of his mind; but it is well that his work in its entirety should be presented in a substantial form in order that new generations of readers may feel its charm and its educational influence. For Mr. Warner's ethical impulses were so definite and his ethical standards so high that, without ever giving a hint of sermonizing, or a suggestion of the manner of the pulpit, he was a teacher from first to last.

A Puritan by descent and by tradition, he was pre-eminently a man of culture; whose keen moral insight and deep moral feeling did not make him one-sided; who avoided the hardness and the limitation of Puritanism by wide interests, breadth of knowledge, and humor. Few Americans have known the world of our time better than this accomplished writer and indefatigable traveler, but the interest of his work does not have its root in his accomplishments or observation, but in his own nature. No man of his position had less affectation; no man who cared so much for the dignity of literature and its purity was freer from any taint of professionalism. He wrote with refreshing simplicity and directness, and it is in his natural qualities, his alertness of observation, his keenness of social insight, his humor, his easy, well-bred style, that one finds the secret of his popularity; for, fortunately for the country, he was one of the most widely read of the high-class writers of his time.

He came into literature by way of journalism, which meant practical training in the use of literary material, a keen sense of the value of contemporary events, and a knowledge of the reading habits and tastes of his contemporaries. The work which fills these fifteen substantial volumes began in a series of breezy out-of-door papers contributed to the Hartford "Courant," and full of the zest, suggestiveness, and playful humor of a man who lived a generous life outside his editorial office. "My Summer in a Garden" marked the beginning of a long and fruitful career as a writer. It was the disclosure of an American humorist who recalled Irving without in any way imitating him, and the quality of whose humor was at once kindly, sympathetic, and intelligent; sometimes whimsical, never malicious or biting. A glance at the titles of these fifteen volumes brings into clear relief the breadth of Mr. Warner's interests. He was a traveler of the higher class at a time when traveling had not become an occupation and a passion with Americans, and his reports of impressions on the Nile and in the Levant, of life in the South and the West, in Canada and nearer home, were full of keen observation, shrewd comment, playful humor, the genial interest of a man who is concerned with all sorts and conditions of men, and who looks at their life from their own point of view. "My Winter on the Nile" and "In the Levant" will probably take their places among the few American classics of travel. They are free from the literalness, the up-to-dateness, the bare report of facts which condemn most books of travel to-day to a brief reading. They are rich, on the other hand, in those impressions and com-

[1] *The Complete Writings of Charles Dudley Warner.* Edited by Thomas R. Lounsbury. Backlog Edition. In 15 vols. The American Publishing Company, Hartford, Connecticut.

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ments on men and women, and of that atmosphere, which are the contribution of a distinct and interesting personality.

Towards the end of his career Mr. Warner took up a new literary form, and in "Their Pilgrimage," "A Little Journey in the World," "The Golden House," and "That Fortune" contributed to the study of American society four delightfully written novels. He was not a writer of fiction by the necessity of his nature; he was drawn to it by the fullness of his observation, his keen interest in men and women, his knowledge of social conditions, and his thorough literary equipment. The historian of the future will find in these four stories a study of contemporary American life of extraordinary interest and accuracy. There have been more brilliant novels registering the disintegration of character and the unconscious lowering of ideals through the sudden acquirement of wealth; but in no stories has this decay of character, of which our life during the past twenty years has been so full, been more accurately and delicately recorded.

It was, however, as an essayist that Mr. Warner was at his best. The essay-form was exactly suited to him; it fitted, as it were, his temperament and his view of life. He was always at bottom a serious man, but his seriousness was always tinctured with humor, and he was keenly alive to the variety and significance of human interests. His occasional addresses, his essays which appeared in the magazines, even his speeches in behalf of the various societies in which he was interested, are all touched with the grace of a trained writer and with the charm of a man whose personality was never submerged or confined by the intensity of his interests. If his books are not finally ranged with those of the major writers, they give promise of finding their place beside the work of Irving, among those Americans who have loved literature for its own sake, pursued it with single-minded devotion, and brought to it qualities of nature distinctly and characteristically American.

Everything has been done by the publishers of this edition to give Mr. Warner's work the dignity and refinement of form which it deserves. The volumes are of the right size, simply bound, the paper and the typography expressing the high quality of the work which this set of books preserves in permanent form. The edition has had, moreover, the editorial supervision of Professor Thomas R. Lounsbury, of Yale University, a life-long friend of Mr. Warner, and a scholar and writer of exceptional accuracy of knowledge and soundness of taste. Professor Lounsbury contributes to the series a biography which is characteristically clear, vivacious, and illuminating, and prefaces each volume with a biographical note.

Summer Rain

By Dorothy Canfield

All day the clouds had heavy hung and low;
All day the world had frowned in sluggish pain,
Had suffered the dull pangs that yet remain
When strength to feel the anguish of the blow
Of grief has died in weariness of woe.
The gray mists straining hung, as they were fain
To break th' embittering restraint and rain
Down healing tears upon Earth's desperate brow.
Then in the deathlike hush of unknown fears
The wind wakes to fresh stirring life each leaf,
A few hot drops fall in the thirsty glen,
Sudden the trees flash in the longed-for tears
Of Nature, washing her heart clean from grief
So that to-morrow she may smile on men.

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Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

Accountancy of Investment (The). By Charles Ezra Sprague, A.M., Ph.D., C.P.A. (Studies in Business: First Series, No. 3.) Published for the New York University School of Commerce, Accounts, and Finance by the Business Publishing Co., New York. 5¾×9 in. 94 pages.

A clear and comprehensive treatise on modern, scientific methods of accountancy, for the business man who wants to understand its principles and apply them in his business.

Æschylus' Prometheus. Edited by Joseph Edward Harry. The American Book Co., New York. 4¾×7½ in. 358 pages.

Amulett (Das). By Conrad Ferdinand Meyer. Edited by C. C. Glascock. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7¼ in. 165 pages.

Balloons, Airships, and Flying Machines. By Gertrude Bacon. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 4¾×7¼ in. 124 pages. 50c., net.

Belgium and Holland, including the Grand-Duchy of Luxembourg: Handbook for Travellers. By Karl Baedeker. (Fourteenth Edition, Revised and Augmented.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 4×7¼ in. 474 pages. $1.80, net.

A new edition brought up to date.

Briefs on Public Questions, with Selected Lists of References. By Ralph Curtis Ringwalt, A.B., LL.B. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 229 pages. $1.20, net.

Within its chosen field a valuable reference-book. Under three divisions (Politics, Economics, and Sociology) twenty-five individual topics are treated—all of large and usually of immediate importance. Thus, to give two illustrations from each division, we may name: Chinese Immigration, The Monroe Doctrine, Commercial Reciprocity, Trusts, Government Ownership of Railways, A Federal Divorce Law. The method is: first, to state a proposition, as, "The policy of the United States with respect to Chinese immigration should be continued;" then to give a full list of general references to books, articles, Congressional reports, and special bibliographies; thirdly, to state the facts making the topic important, and the specific questions it involves; finally, to outline, with a special additional list of references, a brief for each side of the problem. The work has been done with much care and thoroughness, and the book is not by any means limited in its usefulness to those preparing for debates, although its peculiar adaptability to that purpose is evident.

Child Vivian (The). By Charlotte J. Cipriani. Illustrated. The Rand, McNally Press, New York. 7×9 in. 180 pages.

A rendering in acceptable English of an ancient French epic very little known among English readers, but comparable with the story of King Arthur as a mediæval romance of chivalry. As the translator points out, French "chansons de geste" not only present the spirit and courtesy of chivalry and heroic deeds, but incidentally give a faithful picture of the time in which they were written, although not of the times to which they are supposed to relate. The book is intended for children, but would probably attract only those in their teens and of a naturally keen imaginative character.

Christianity as Taught by Christ. By Henry Stiles Bradley, D.D. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5×8 in. 316 pages. $1.25, net.

One may reasonably see in this volume of discourses at Atlanta upon the Sermon on the Mount a fresh illustration of the oft-heard phrase, "The New South." It is thoroughly adapted to the modern world in form and spirit. It is an excellent presentation of the ethical religion that alone merits the name of Christianity. The theme is the central theme of Jesus—the kingdom of God and his righteousness. These sermons are plain and pointed; they have glow and warmth; they are well thought out and aptly illustrated; they create demand for more of the same.

David Copperfield; Oliver Twist. Retold by Annie Douglas Severance. (The Child's Dickens.) The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 160 pages.

Doctrine of God (The). By Rev. Francis J. Hall, D.D. (Second Edition, Revised.) The Young Churchman Co., Milwaukee, Wis. 5¼×7½ in. 166 pages.

Economy in Education. By Ruric Nevel Roark, Ph.D. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 252 pages.

Elder Brother (The). By Theodore D. Jervey. The Neale Publishing Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 522 pages. $1.50.

Essentials in American History (From the Discovery to the Present Day). By Albert Bushnell Hart, LL.D. (Essentials in History Series.) The American Book Co., New York. 5¼×8¼ in. 632 pages. $1.50.

These two volumes, together with that already printed relating to Ancient History, make up a series which is, we believe, unique. The volumes are intended for use in secondary schools, and contain lists of references and topical questions, but apart from this pedagogic machinery they have little in common with the ordinary school-book. The authors have addressed themselves avowedly only to those things which have been vital and significant to the development of the civilizations treated respectively in the several works. While the historic narrative is necessarily compact and free from all attempts at rhetorical writing or dramatic presentation, the books are essentially selective in that they

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purposely omit confusing details. Professor Hart and Professor Walker have evidently given serious work to this undertaking and have added materially to the literature of history.

Essentials of Latin for Beginners. By Henry Carr Pearson, A.B. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 316 pages.

Fairy Reader (The), Adapted from Grimm and Andersen. By James Baldwin. Illustrated. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 190 pages.

Fairy Tales Every Child Should Know. Edited by Hamilton Wright Mabie. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 370 pages. 90c., net.

The publishers have had the happy idea of collecting in one volume the fairy tales of many countries and peoples. The title of the book exactly describes its purpose. There can be no doubt that such a collection would be a welcome addition to a child's library, and of positive value to mothers who wish to read to their children the choicest pages of this branch of imaginative literature. For the fairy tale in its best form has a much higher mission than merely to amuse, as is shown by Mr. Mabie in the Introduction to the collection. He says: "The fairy tale belongs to the child, and ought always to be within his reach, not only because it is his special literary form and his nature craves it, but because it is one of the most vital of the text-books offered to him in the school of life. In ultimate importance it outranks the arithmetic, the grammar, the geography, the manuals of science; for without the aid of the imagination none of these books is really comprehensible." In one respect the book appears to us defective, in that it does not state by whom the particular version of each of these child classics was written. Thus, the reader who does not happen to know whether "Hansel and Grethel" was written by Andersen or the Grimms is entitled to be told; and if he comes across a particularly charming rendering of the old, old romance of "Beauty and the Beast," he may very properly ask by whom it was given this individual delightful literary dress.

First History of Bayonne, New Jersey. By Royden Page Whitcomb. Published by the Author, Bayonne, New Jersey. 5½×8½ in. 123 pages. $1.25.

Freedom of Authority (The): Essays in Apologetics. By J. Macbride Sterrett, D.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8¼ in. 319 pages. $2.

The announcement of a new book by Professor Sterrett is welcome to those who are interested in a stimulating discussion of the fundamental problems of religious and philosophical thought. A peculiar attraction of the present volume is that such a discussion centers in a critique of three foremost representatives of liberal culture in the modern Church—Auguste Sabatier, Harnack, and Loisy. The critique is trenchant: these three apply the historical method in an unhistorical spirit, and reach only an arid and illusive result. "The essence of Christianity," "the religion of the spirit," on which they are professedly intent, is not "the real Christianity, which it is the business of historical students to study, and of philosophers to estimate." This, says Professor Sterrett, "is the factual Christianity of the Church—a Christianity of creed, cult, and polity, a kingdom of God on earth—in our midst." This statement supplies the thoughtful reader with ready perception of the point of divergence between the critic and the criticised. They differently define the crucial word, Christianity. According to the Hegelian philosophy of Professor Sterrett, only the whole is real, and so Christianity is what it has developed into in its present organized form: "the nature of a thing," he reminds us, "is seen only in its perfected or developed form." To identify thus the part and the whole—the present with the ultimate development of "factual Christianity"—is rather precipitate logic. Professor Sterrett incisively disparages the call "back to the primitive Gospel" as "a crab-cry," a real "yellow peril." A sharp corrective to this appears in a subsequent chapter: "To-day it is only the new which is *indissolubly* and *organically* connected with the old that is true in Christian doctrine." The words here italicized must also qualify the subsequent contention that for our present portrait of Christ we must make a sort of composite photograph of the scholastic and Protestant along with the apostolic portraits of him. The latter and better half of the good rule, "Write with fury and correct with phlegm," should have been better followed. Professor Sterrett stands for the rational freedom which is realized through conformity to authority, that is, to the influences leading to self-realization in normal and complete humanity. The mainly admirable chapter devoted to this topic gives its title to the entire volume. Authority is here presented as "always a form of objective reason." It is, but it is more. We make authorities to ourselves; we form our own ideals; we create our own motives. Here, as elsewhere, reality is not in the object only, nor in the subject only, but in the union of the subject with the object, in the identification of the man with the mandate. What Professor Sterrett fears and fights what he takes for it is an undue subjectivity in religion, but he seems to be in more danger on the other side. To draw a line between the two is attempted in his chapter on the "Ethics of Creed-conformity," but with doubtful success. On one hand, "Our minds must be both attached to and detached from bygone formulas," especially of the modern Protestant confessions. On the other hand, the Nicene Creed is the genuine "*Formula Concordiæ*"—"the one sacred hieroglyph to which a philosophy of history demands loyal assent from every rational Christian." But the liberty of private interpretation conceded in this word "hieroglyph" plainly shows the futility of the attempt to draw a line between the subjective and the objective. In religion

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and morality, as in philosophy, the two coalesce in every rational act. Such are some of the vital points of modern thought on which Professor Sterrett has here freed his mind with a vigor and warmth that engage one's interest even amidst dissent. In no position is he open to stronger dissent than in holding worship to be the "central function" of the Church. What provokes dissent is the narrow conception of worship. Here are disclosed the peril and the opportunity of the Church in the modern world

Girl's Garden (A). By Margaret M. Rankin. Andrew Melrose, London, England. 4¼×7 in. 104 pages.

A pretty out-of-door book, which is well adapted to instill a love of gardening. The pictures are charming. Many, but not all, of the practical hints are applicable here as well as in England.

Grammaire Française Pratique à l'Usage des Americains. By J. H. Workman, Ph.D., et A. de Rougemont, B.A. Revised by Louis W. Arnold. The American Book Co., New York. 4¾×7½ in. 203 pages. $1.

Half-Hours with the Lower Animals. By Charles Frederick Holder. Illustrated. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 236 pages.

History and Government of the United States. By William Estabrook Chancellor. Illustrated. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 112 pages.

History of the Pacific Northwest (A). By Joseph Schafer, M.L. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 321 pages. $1.25, net.

The opening of the Lewis and Clark Exposition invests with the interest of timeliness this entertaining and well-written account of the history of the Oregon country, as the territory which now embraces the States of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho was formerly known. Beginning with the story of Balboa's discovery of the Pacific Ocean and of the voyages which resulted in the early mapping of the entire Pacific coast of North America, Mr. Schafer, relates, in, as a rule, carefully proportioned detail, the explorations of the region antecedent to the great overland march of Lewis and Clark; the opening of the trans-Rocky Mountain highway; the race for the Oregon fur trade; the joint occupation by British and American settlers; the long-enduring territorial dispute and final settlement; and, in conclusion, the subsequent development of the country from the late forties to the present day. This last is the least satisfactory portion of his work, compression being carried to an extreme. Here as elsewhere, however, the treatment is clear and logical, the tone impartial, and the style direct and agreeable. The book, in fine, is a useful addition to the literature of its subject.

How to Know Wild Fruits. By Maude Gridley Peterson. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 340 pages. $1.50, net.

An illustrated manual for the identification of common plants and shrubs by their leaves and fruits, when the flowers are no longer to be found.

Holy Spirit (The): His Personality, Mission, and Modes of Activity. By J. H. Garrison, LL.D. Christian Publishing Co., St. Louis, Mo. 5×7¾ in. 211 pages. $1.

House of the Seven Gables (The). By Nathaniel Hawthorne. Edited by Clyde Furst. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4×5¾ in. 298 pages. 25c.

International Civil and Commercial Law as Founded upon Theory, Legislation, and Practice. By F. Meili. Translated by Arthur K. Kuhn, A.M. The Macmillan Co., New York. 6×9 in. 559 pages. $3, net.

The author was a delegate from Switzerland to the Hague International Conferences, and this very thorough discussion was at least in part suggested by those Conferences. The book of course deals with international private law as distinguished from international public law, and is in the main concerned with the Continental views of this branch of jurisprudence. Naturally, the work is hardly intended for the general reader, but its exactness of method and thoroughness of research evidently make it a work of lasting value to the jurist accustomed to deal with large legal topics in a scientific manner.

Iowa: The First Free State in the Louisiana Purchase. By William Salter. Illustrated. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. 5×7½ in. 289 pages.

A resident of Iowa for more than sixty years, Mr. Salter has already published several studies of phases of its history, his present volume constituting a summing up of the results of his inquiries into the events occurring within its borders from its discovery by Joliet and Marquette to its admission to Statehood in 1846. He writes with an enthusiasm that is easily understood. From its earliest youth Iowa has been a region of romance. Many a stirring episode in the winning of the West was enacted on its soil, many a heroic figure is connected with its name. And later, when the alarums of war had died away, and the Paleface had finally displaced the Redskin, its political evolution was replete with interest. Unfortunately, while Mr. Salter has been diligent in the collection of material bearing on the history of the State, he has not been equally careful in point of selection and presentation. His narrative lacks the flowing interest one would naturally expect, being retarded both by a peculiar inclusiveness of treatment and a somewhat halting style. Against the obvious defects, however, stand equally obvious virtues—not the least of which is the exhumation of forgotten contemporary evidence casting instructive side-lights on the annals, not merely of early Iowa, but of the younger days of the Republic.

Ireland in the New Century. By the Right Hon. Sir Horace Plunkett, K.C.V.O., F.R.S. Popular Edition, with an Epilogue in Answer to some Critics. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5¼×8¼ in. 340 pages. 60c., net.

As was to have been expected, the appearance of this work rather more than a year ago provoked an outburst of hostile criti-

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cism. In his exposition of the economic reorganization which he deems essential to the regeneration of Ireland, Sir Horace Plunkett was not sparing in comment on internal forces—certain national traits, certain political tendencies, and certain characteristics of Roman Catholicism—viewed by him as operating to the detriment of the country. Rejoinders were forthcoming promptly and vigorously. It was contended that his book had a purely partisan basis; that, in the last analysis, the object of the industrial movement which it so ably advocated was to undermine the political movement for Home Rule; it was also held that his tone throughout was one of "undisguised contempt for the Irish race;" there was a further condemnation of the work as "an insult to Catholic Ireland." In the present edition Sir Horace takes occasion to add an "Epilogue" in the way of a reply to his critics, meeting their several objections in turn and incidentally restating the purpose with which he put pen to paper—"to concentrate thought upon certain social and economic problems hitherto neglected in Ireland, and to expound a practical programme of national development." His reply, like his work itself, is dignified and clear, and should go far toward gaining a more sympathetic hearing for what is unquestionably a sane and helpful contribution to the settlement of the ever-difficult Irish question.

Irrfahrten. By Friedrich Gerstacker. Edited by F. B. Sturm. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. 4¼×6½ in. 203 pages.

Isidro. By Mary Austin. Illustrated. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 425 pages. $1.50.

A romance of Southern California, full of the charm of the climate and of the freshness and variety of out-of-door life on the great ranches. Not a great piece of fiction, but carefully written, and presenting interesting types of character well drawn, and a charming background of landscape.

Jews in Many Lands. By Edgar Nathan Adler. Illustrated. The Jewish Publication Society of America, Philadelphia. 5×7½ in. 259 pages.

This report, from a trained and capable observer, is both interesting and enlightening. The field he covers includes Russia, Turkey, and Persia, Egypt, Morocco, and the Argentine. In the Argentine he would not be surprised to find the Jewish millionaire as numerous, a generation hence, as in the United States. The Palestinian Jews are doing some creditable things not generally known. The Rothschild School at Jerusalem "is a veritable university of technical education," doing work that would be creditable to the artisans of London or Paris.

Juggernaut: Christian Science Exposed. By W. H. Watson. Illustrated. Investigation Committee, Davenport, Iowa. 4½×7 in. 69 pages. $1.

Latin Exercise Book. Cæsar's Gallic War.—Book I., III., and IV. By A. I. Dotey. (Gilder-Lodge Latin Series.) University Publishing Co., New York. 5½×9¼ in.

Lawyer's Idle Hours (A): Sentiment, Satire, Humor, Life, Death, Glory. By Frank Myrtle. (Second Edition.) Published by the Author, Brooklyn, New York. 5×7½ in. 178 pages.

Loyalty: The Soul of Religion. By James G. K. McClure. Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 4½×7½ in. 240 pages. $1, net.

Collected here are the talks which Dr. McClure has addressed to Yale students at various times in recent years. They are of the winning sort, presenting the manly traits of religion with warm feeling, vigorous thought, and apt illustration, with Christ in the center as true manhood's ideal.

Man and the Incarnation. By Samuel J. Andrews. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 6½×8 in. 309 pages. $1.50, net.

Dr. Andrews, the author of a well-known and valuable Life of Christ, seems to have been moved to his present work by an apprehension that a "twilight of unbelief is settling over the Church." Among the signs of this which he mentions is the apparent decline of belief in angels, good and evil, as active in the world's affairs. That the central truth of Christianity is the incarnation of deity in humanity, many whom he would regard as in that twilight affirm as unhesitatingly as he, while interpreting it more broadly. The view he is concerned to insist on is that of the ancient creeds, narrowing the truth to the supreme manifestation of it in the Christ. An *a priori*, speculative, and dogmatic mode of thought characterizes his unfolding of the subject. God's fatherly goodness can hardly have placed man on the earth before its cataclysmic changes had ended in making it a comfortable and safe abode; therefore the evolutionist's account of primitive man must be at fault. But the fall of man in Eden vitiated some of the physical conditions of the earth. The old geocentric idea of our planet reappears in Dr. Andrews's conception of the starry worlds as "now empty and silent," but destined to be populated by the spiritual creation of multitudes of holy beings by the Christ, for which our world is the central seed-plot. The Christ is to return to establish his kingdom here, and will stand upon the Mount of Olives, as foretold by Zechariah. In general, a literal interpretation of Scripture is followed throughout. Dr. Andrews seems quite right in holding that the Church's faith in the Incarnation must be revitalized. But this can only be as larger forms of expression are provided for it than those that satisfied the world of the Roman Empire.

Manual of Elocution and Expression for Public Speakers and Readers (A). By Rev. Albert Francis Tenney, M.A. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5½×7¾ in. 298 pages.

May Margaret, Called "The Fair Maid of Galloway." By S. R. Crockett. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 375 pages. $1.50.

Mr. Crockett continues to produce romantic tales with astonishing fertility and with equally surprising evenness. The present story deals with a Scottish noble maiden of the famous house of Douglas; and although it has in it the clash of swords and the plots

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of statesmen, it is chiefly the love story of a lively and quick-witted girl, told in her own way, and full of mischievous waywardness. Louis XI. of France, that favorite of romance writers, again appears in these pages. Mr. Crockett is a born story-teller, and although, as we look back to his earliest sketches of Scottish life, we feel that he has abandoned to some extent, for the sake of wide popularity, his best literary and artistic instincts, it is nevertheless much to be thankful for to have every few months a romance which is perfectly healthy in tone and so constructed as to hold the attention from cover to cover.

Middle English Reader (A). Edited by Oliver Farrar Emerson, A.M., Ph.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 475 pages. $1.90.

Miniature Dictionary. 2 vols. **English and French Language. French and English Language.** By Brown and Martin. With Additions by J. Duhamel. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 2¼×3½ in. 50c. each.

Motors and Motoring. By Henry J. Spooner, C.E. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 4½×7¼ in. 103 pages. 50c., net.

A practical guide to the mechanical construction of automobiles, with hints as to their proper care.

Nature Study Lessons for Primary Grades. By Mrs. Lida B. McMurry. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 191 pages. 60c., net.

Old Tales and Modern Ideals: A Series of Talks to High School Students. By John Herbert Phillips. Silver, Burdett & Co., New York. 5¼×8 in. 233 pages.

On the We-A Trail: A Story of the Great Wilderness. By Caroline Brown. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4½×7 in. 351 pages. 25c.

Organ Gems. Selected by Albert W. Berg. William A. Pond & Co., New York. 12×9½ in. 90 pages.

Our First Century. By George Cary Eggleston. Illustrated. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 268 pages. $1.20, net.

No better choice of an author could have been made to carry out the design of this book, which is in brief to present in a connected and picturesque narrative those facts of American history during the seventeenth century which were characteristic as to life and manners and customs. The book has the story element in a marked degree. It is liberally illustrated.

Peculiar People in a Pleasant Land: A South African Narrative. By Reginald Fenton. The Pretoria Publishing Co., Girard, Kan. 5×7¾ in. 359 pages. $1.50.

Philosophy and Froth. By Florence James Rosse. Broadway Publishing Co., New York. 4¾×7½ in. 27 pages.

Place of Industries in Elementary Education (The). By Katharine Elizabeth Dopp. (Third Edition.) The University of Chicago Press, Chicago. $1, net.

It is a great satisfaction to meet with a book that moves along an unbeaten path to new points of view on current problems. Such a book is this. The process of socializing the young life should begin long before the storm-and-stress years of adolescence. To show how it may be well initiated is the object of this book. After passing in review the industrial epochs from primitive to present times, and marking the limits within which racial experiences may be utilized for educational ends, it proceeds to practical illustrations of the way in which these experiences may be used to facilitate the process of socializing the instinctive activities of the child. That there is need of this is obvious, and there is no more serious educational problem than how to effect it. As Carlyle said, all past men are at work with the present-day worker, but he often derides President Eliot's doctrine of joy in work as bait for gudgeons. The workmanship instinct and the collective consciousness of earlier times have been submerged by modern machinery, and need recovery. How the school may contribute to this is here explained, *e.g.*, by lessons on the evolution of such implements as a hammer or a knife. Such studies promote art and science also, as well as a healthful attitude to the school itself. An extended lesson in the reproduction of the industrial life of the Mayflower colony at Plymouth completes the series of recommended studies. The book is for open-minded and enterprising teachers. If it be deemed at all too idealistic, it is not on that side that teachers are in danger.

Pocket R. L. S. (The): Being Favourite Passages from the Works of Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 3½×5½ in. 217 pages. 50c.

A prettily made volume, and one that many will like to have. It contains numerous passages, welcome for their keenness of thought or suggestion of true feeling.

Prince or Creole: The Mystery of Louis XVII. By Publius V. Lawson. Illustrated. George Banta Publishing Co., Menasha, Wis. 5¼×8 in. 310 pages.

It is more than half a century since the Rev. Dr. Hanson made public the claim of the Indian missionary, Eleazar Williams, to the throne of France as Louis XVII., the story running that instead of having perished in the Temple prison during the Revolution, as was commonly supposed, the boy king, son of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette, had been spirited by an agent of the royal family to America and there left, in a condition bordering on imbecility, among the Caughnawaga Indians, passing as the son of a half-breed, Thomas Williams. In restating the case, from original as well as secondary sources, Mr. Lawson does not conceal his belief that the claim was well founded, although he frankly admits that the evidence adduced by Dr. Hanson and subsequent investigators is not such as would be accepted by a court of law. If he does not succeed in winning his readers to his way of thinking, Mr. Lawson may at least take to himself the credit of having recounted, in an entertaining way, a narrative of high interest altogether apart from that naturally attaching to historical mysteries. Whether Frenchman or Indian, Mr. Williams was a man of unique personality, and, in his long years of

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self-sacrifice in ministering to the spiritual necessities of the red men of the Great Lakes region, left a record well worthy of commemoration.

Princess Sukey: The Story of a Pigeon and Her Human Friends. By Marshall Saunders. Eaton & Mains, New York. 5¼×8 in. 336 pages. $1.75, net.

Radium Explained. By Dr. W. Hampson, M.A. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 4¾×7¼ in. 122 pages. 50c., net.

A popular presentation of the phenomena exhibited by radium and other similar substances, and of the new theories of matter which have been propounded to explain them.

Robert Louis Stevenson's Works. (Biographical Edition.) With Prefaces by Mrs. Stevenson. **Treasure Island, Prince Otto, The Master of Ballantrae.** Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 4½×7 in. $1 per vol.

We have already referred to this excellent small-volume edition, made notable by Mrs. Stevenson's prefaces telling how and when each book was written.

Selections from the Public and Private Law of the Romans. By James J. Robinson, Ph.D. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 304 pages.

Songs from the Silent Land. By Louis Vernon Ledoux. Brentano's, New York. 6¼×9½ in. 87 pages.

There is not so much real poetry written in this country nor so many true lovers of the art that a modest volume of verse like this can be passed by too lightly. The very refined and charming physical appearance of the book is indicative of the imagination and love of beauty which a reading of the verses discloses. Mr. Ledoux's poems strike a pure and high note; if the reader feels that they are here and there too subjective, that they are concerned too much with the mysteries and too little with the phenomena of life, it must be remembered that such differences of attitude spring from natural differences of taste and temperament. The essential thing is that the poet shall possess a very real love of nature and beauty, together with grace and skill of expression. This little volume displays both these essentials. The fresh note in Mr. Ledoux's verse and his feeling are indicated by these lines, selected atmost at random:

YOUTH

I sing the joy of the wind-swept woods,
The joy of the love-lit sky,
The joy of the solemn solitudes
Where the stars burn clear on high:

For life is a joyous song of love,
Of beauty and delight,
And human souls in cadence move
With the rhythmic hymn of night.

I sing with the winds, the stars, and sun,
As the world rolls on its way,
A song of cosmic joy, begun
At the birth of night and day:

For life is a perfect symphony,
With God and his world in tune,
And I feel the vibrant harmony
Of the pulsing days of June.

Spirit of the Service (The). By Edith Elmer Wood. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4¼×7 in. 334 pages. Paper bound, 25c.

A new low-priced edition, in paper, of a very pleasantly written story of the navy.

Suggestions for a Study of Conditions of City Life: Bibliography. By Emily Greene Balch. At 15c. for single copies. **Syllabi for the Study of Social Questions.** 5c. each.

These pamphlets, issued by the College Settlement Association as contributions to the study of social questions, may be obtained from Miss L. B. Lange, at 220 West Nineteenth Street, New York City. Together they form a commendable and helpful compendium for the purpose of directing the student to original sources of information on important questions. These will be seen from some of the main heads treated: The Citizen; Housing; Health; Education; Recreation; Municipal Functions; The City Beautiful; Biographies of Social Leaders; Modern Philanthropy; The Morals of Spending. The pamphlets, as we understand it, were originally used in a series of college lectures. They may well be of use, as the author of the Bibliography quotes, "to clubs, classes, or individuals, as a basis for systematic study or for topical reference."

Teacher and the Class (The). Edited by the Rev. H. S. B. Yates. (Second Edition.) The Sunday School Union, London, England. 4×6¼ in. 96 pages.

Temporary and the Permanent in New Testament Revelation (The): The Bohlen Lectures for 1905. By Harry Peirce Nichols, D.D. Thomas Whittaker, New York. 5×7½ in. 248 pages. $1.25, net.

These lectures are intended to interpret the accepted results of modern critical studies as practically affecting Christianity. While Christianity is, in a certain view, a book religion, it is more; the Man is behind the book; in him is the permanent; we have not "a written revelation," but, as Dean Stanley said, a revelation that has been written about; and the Christ is it. The old approach to him was through the Creed, through theologians. The new is through the beauty and power of his real life on earth. Both ways lead to God, but the new and living way is through the humanity that both veiled and revealed the divine Spirit. To this way Dr. Nichols points. His general attitude towards critical problems appears in his willingness to accept the narrative of the virgin birth, with willingness to regard it as one of "those temporary features which each age must read and translate for itself." In St. Paul's theology he finds temporary elements that have been used to the detriment of Christian faith by logicians mishandling his mystical thought. The apocalyptic element in the New Testament has been similarly abused; Jesus' use of it "was almost purely devotional." A strong plea is made for the elimination from the prayer-book and lectionary of portions of Scripture that no longer serve for edification. Here and there an inconsistency appears. On one page we read, "The Incarnate Christ laid aside the

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metaphysical attributes of the divine nature;" on another Dr. Hatch's remark, "The belief that metaphysical theology is part of divine revelation has been Christianity's *damnosa hereditas*," is quoted approvingly. But the tendency of the whole argument is to strengthen confidence in the essential verities of the spiritual life.

Correspondence

Letters addressed to the Editors of The Outlook, to receive any attention whatever, must in all cases be accompanied by the name and address of the writer. Names will not be published if a request to that effect is made by the writer, but no attention, either personal or editorial, can be paid to anonymous communications.

Lend a Hand Society

To the Editors of The Outlook:

When June comes you always let me write a circular-letter to the New Englanders who read The Outlook in their charming summer homes.

One of them arrived at his Beverly cottage a few years ago, and after a few minutes on his piazza he went into the pretty writing-room which his wife had provided and sent to Lend a Hand a check for fifty dollars, and said, "This is the value of the first sniff of sea air." He meant this to be used for our country outings for old men.

Readers should observe that a kind world has made provisions for outings for women and for children, by which the slums and dens of cities are relieved for the summer. But "scientific charity" has wisely said that *men* must paddle their own canoes and must take care of themselves, in which "scientific charity" is quite right.

For all great rules there are exceptions, however. One of ours is a family of large boys, all of whom are cripples. "I hope the cripple boys can go again. All four have but nine arms and legs among them. Still, you would be astonished at their activity."

That is purely an exceptional case for which "scientific charity" ought not to provide. But two institutions, one called the Church of Christ and one called the "Lend a Hand," exist for the purpose of taking care of the exceptions. So we shall be very much obliged for our men's outings for any extra money there is lying around. Mrs. Champernoon, I understand that your Ural stock had doubled its dividends in May. You did not expect this. Suppose you send us a month's extra dividends.

EDWARD E. HALE.

1 Beacon Street, Boston, Massachusetts.

Trial by Jury

To the Editors of The Outlook:

I have read with much interest your editorial notice of May 6, relative to a recent Supreme Court decision as to maintenance of the constitutional right of trial by jury in the Territory of Alaska; and your subsequent explanation and comment as to why such a decision did not apply to trials in the Philippine Islands. While the decision might logically be applied to citizens of the Philippines, it is difficult for American citizens in those islands, and especially those in the Government service who are there under orders, to understand how they have either renounced or been deprived of any of their constitutional rights by temporary domicile in one of our colonies under instructions from the home Government.

On July 24, 1904, Homer E. Grafton, an enlisted soldier of our army, while on guard on a military reservation at Buena Vista, Island of Guimaras (Philippine Islands), fired upon and killed two natives from whom he feared serious bodily arm—one of the natives being in the act of rushing towards the sentinel with a drawn knife. The soldier was duly tried by court martial—the civil (American) judge of the local Court of the First Instance having expressed his opinion in writing that the military authorities had jurisdiction, and was acquitted. The soldier was subsequently arrested by the civil authorities, tried before this same judge of the civil court, and was sentenced to twelve years' imprisonment. Under the Philippine law, his trial was conducted without a jury, and, as stated, he received a severe sentence for doing what he conceived to be his military duty. More recently, a field officer of the army was tried for alleged embezzlement of civil funds, before a one-man civil court, and under the Spanish law received a cumulative sentence of forty years' imprisonment. He also was denied the constitutional right of trial by a jury of his peers. Regardless, of course, of the guilt or innocence of such public servants, and assuming that the Philippine courts have no option in enforcing the law of the islands, there is something intolerable in this apparent but involuntary loss of a constitutional right, which must appeal to all thinking Americans.

CHARLES D. RHODES.

Washington, D. C.

[There may be very good reasons why in the Philippines a civil court should not be allowed to reverse the action of a military tribunal; but the remedy for such injustice as our correspondent describes would be, first, an appeal to the Governor of the Archipelago or to the President of the United States for a pardon, and, secondarily, some action by Congress; it would not be a decision of the Supreme Court that the Archipelago is under the Constitution although the people by their legitimate representatives have not taken any action to accept it as a part of the Union.—THE EDITORS.]

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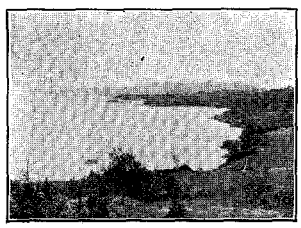

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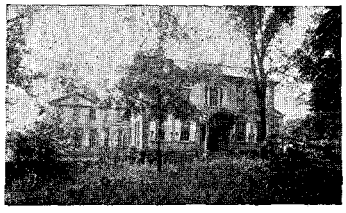

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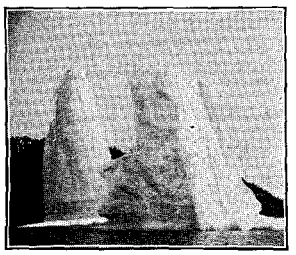

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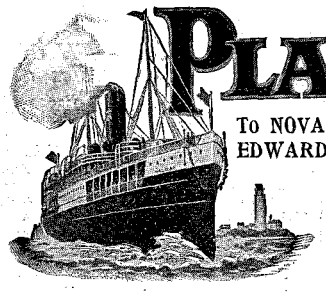

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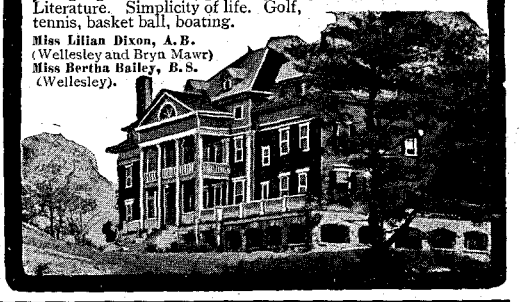

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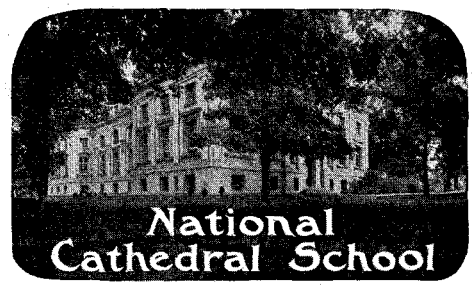

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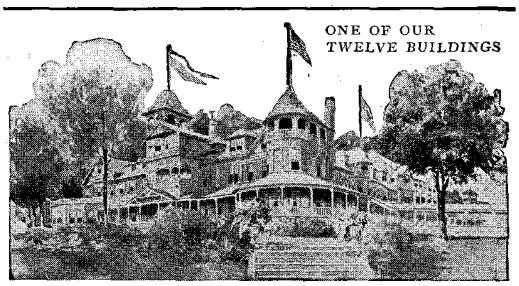

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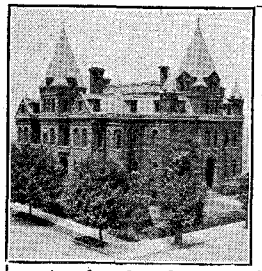

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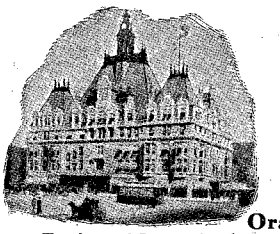

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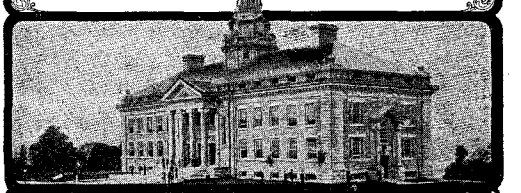

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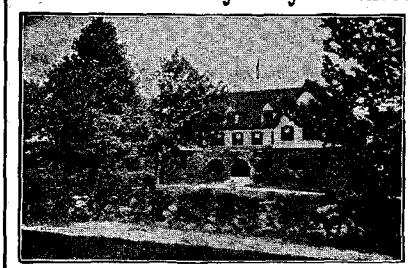

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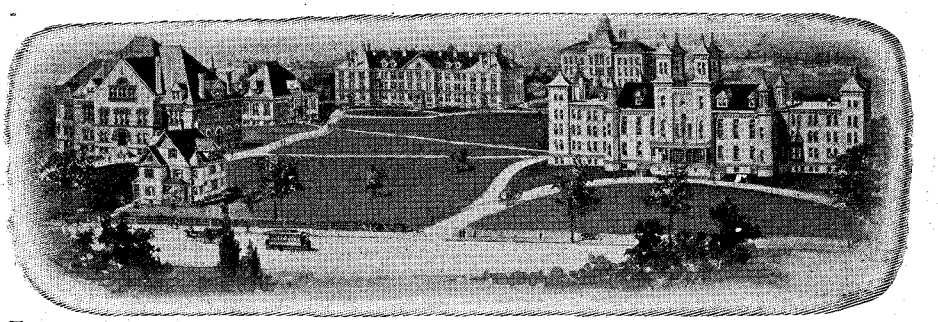

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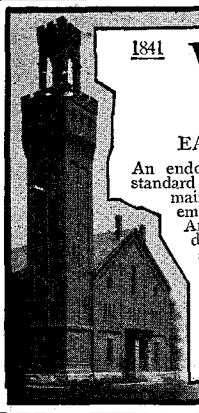

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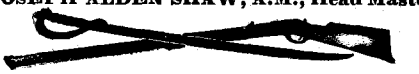

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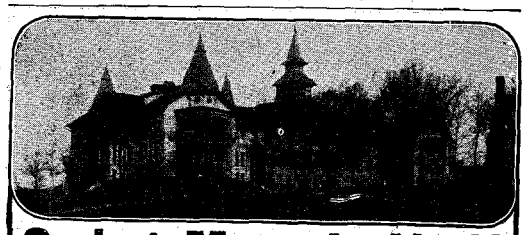

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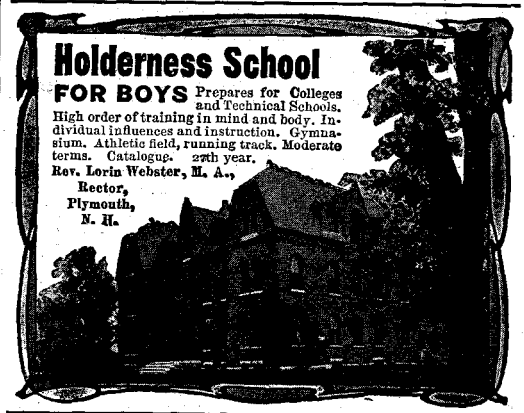

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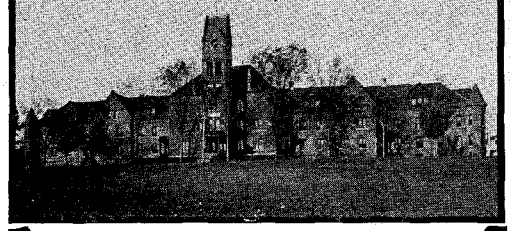

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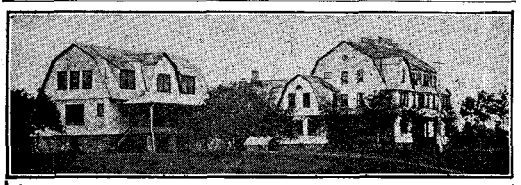

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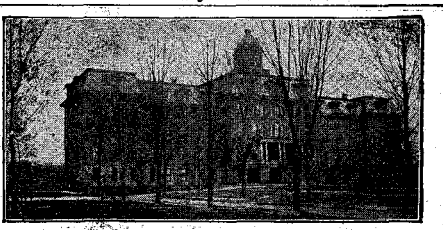

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